



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

CHEM. LIB.

TK
2182
A512

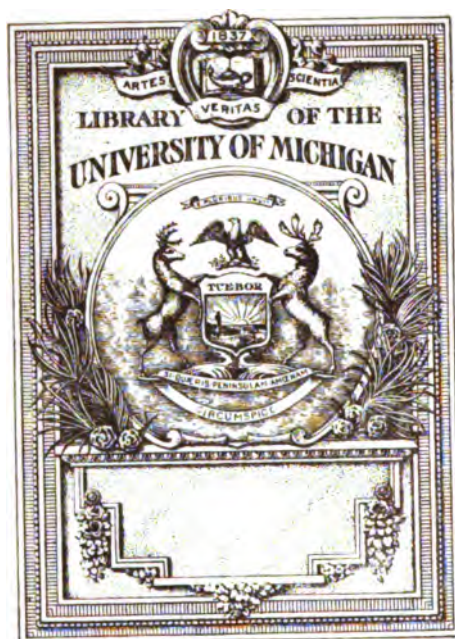
B 454146

MANAGEMENT OF DYNAMO-ELECTRIC MACHINERY

AMERICAN SCHOOL OF CORRESPONDENCE
CHICAGO ILLINOIS
U. S. A.

PART I





TK
2182
.A512

MANAGEMENT OF DYNAMO-
ELECTRIC MACHINERY
PART I

INSTRUCTION PAPER

PREPARED BY

F. B. CROCKER, E.M., PH.D.

HEAD DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
PAST PRESIDENT AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS

A MERICAN SCHOOL OF CORRESPONDENCE

CHICAGO

U. S. A.

ILLINOIS

**COPYRIGHT 1906 BY
AMERICAN SCHOOL OF CORRESPONDENCE**

**Entered at Stationers' Hall, London
All Rights Reserved**

MANAGEMENT OF DYNAMO- ELECTRIC MACHINERY.

The object of this instruction paper is to set forth the most important features which must be considered in the actual handling and operation of electric generators and motors. The principles and general construction of direct-current (D. C.) and alternating-current (A. C.) generators and motors, are treated elsewhere.

The subject may be divided into three parts as follows:

- A. The Selection, Erection, Connection, and Operation.
- B. The Inspection and Testing.
- C. The Troubles or "Diseases" and Remedies.

SELECTION OF A MACHINE.

The voltage, capacity, and type of machine are dependent upon the system to which it is to be connected, and the purpose for which it is to be utilized, but there are certain general features which should be considered in every case.

Construction. This should be of the most solid character and guaranteed first-class in every respect, including materials and workmanship.

Finish. A good finish is desirable, since it is likely to cause the attendant to take greater care of the equipment.

Simplicity. The machine should be as simple as possible in all its parts; peculiar or complicated features should be avoided, unless absolutely essential for the operation of the system.

Attention. The amount of attention required by the machine should be small. The number of screws or nuts should be reduced to a minimum, and they ought always to be provided with some locking device to prevent them from becoming loose. The brushes should be capable of being easily adjusted and self-feeding, so that they may "follow" or make up for any trifling eccentricity of the commutator. The bearings should be self-oiling, and in the smaller sizes self-aligning.

Handling. An eye-bolt or other means by which the machine can be easily lifted and moved is desirable. It ought to be possible to take out the armature conveniently by removing one of the

bearings, or the tops of the field magnet, frame and bearings, or by moving the halves sideways if the frame is split vertically. The armature and field windings should be so designed and mounted that their removal for repairs is an easy matter.

Interchangeability. The machine selected should preferably be one of a regular and standard type, so that extra parts can be obtained without needless delay.

Regulation. Some form of regulating device should be provided by means of which the E. M. F. or current of a generator, or the speed, and in some cases the direction of rotation of a motor, can be readily and accurately controlled.

Form. The machine should be symmetrical, well-proportioned, compact and solid in form. The large and heavy portions should be placed as low as possible, to give greater stability.

Weight. It is a mistake to select a very light machine when it is for stationary use, since weight increases its strength, stability, and durability.

Capacity. This should be ample for the work to be done; in fact it is advisable to allow a margin for increase. The machine should be provided with the maker's name-plate, specifying the rated current, voltage, speed and capacity. The manufacturer should also guarantee the following: That the machine does not heat up in any part of its windings, to more than 50° C, after a run of six hours' duration, under rated load conditions;* also that it is able to carry a 25 per cent overload for two hours, and momentary overloads of 50 per cent, without excessive heating or sparking.

Cost. It is usually an error to select a generator or motor simply because it is cheap, since both the materials and workmanship required for the construction of a high-grade electrical machine are costly.

MECHANICAL CONDITIONS.

Location. The place chosen for the machine should be *dry, free from dust or grit, light, and well ventilated*. It must also be arranged so that there is room enough for the removal of the armature without shifting or turning the machine.

Foundations. It is of great importance to have the machine

* NOTE. By resistance measurements.

firmly placed upon a good and solid foundation; otherwise, no matter how well constructed and managed, the vibrations occurring on a poor foundation will produce sparking at the brushes, and its accompanying troubles.

It is also necessary, if the machine is belt-driven, to mount it upon rails or a sliding bed-plate provided with holding-down bolts and tightening screws for aligning and adjusting the belt while the machine is in operation. (See Fig. 1). The machinery foundations consist of a mass of stone, masonry, brickwork, or concrete, upon which the machinery is placed and usually held firmly in place by bolts passing entirely through the mass. These bolts are built into the foundations, the proper position for them being determined by a wooden template suspended above the foundation, as shown in Fig. 2. The bolts are preferably surrounded by iron

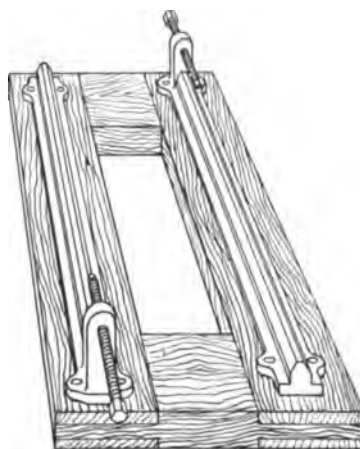


Fig. 1.

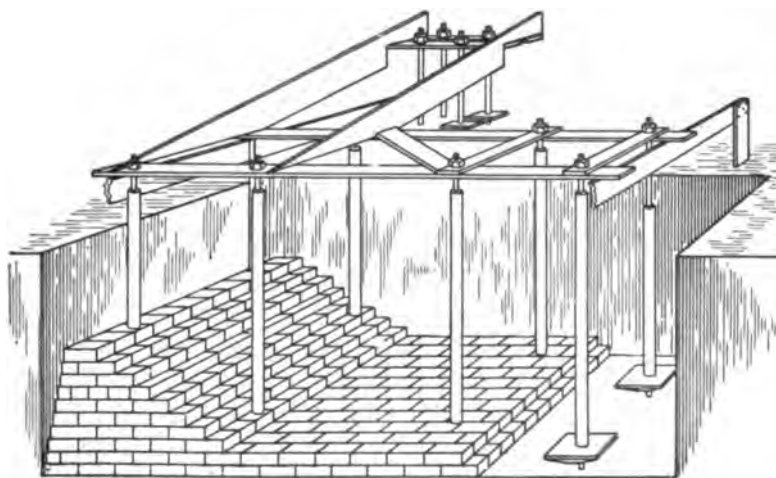


Fig. 2.

pipe that fixes them longitudinally but allows a little side play which may be necessary to enable them to enter the bed-plate

holes readily. The brickwork for machinery foundations should consist of hard burned bricks of first quality, *laid in good cement mortar*. Ordinary *lime mortar is entirely unfit* for the purpose, being likely to crumble away under the effect of the vibrations caused by the machinery. Brick or concrete foundations should be finished with a cap of bluestone or cement. This tends to hold the foundation together, and forms a level surface upon which to set the machinery. If the engine and generator are provided with a cast-iron sub-base, the capping may be dispensed with

Fixing the Machine. In fixing either direct-connected or belt-driven machines, first determine, with a long straight edge and spirit level, if the top of the foundation is level and true. If this is found to be the case, the holding-down bolts may be dropped into the holes in the foundation, if they are not already built in, and the machine carefully placed thereon, the ends of the bolts being passed through the holes in the bed-plate and secured by a few turns of the nuts. The machine should then, if belt-connected, be carefully aligned with the transmitting pulley or fly wheel. Particular attention should be paid to the alignment of the pulleys in order that the belt may run properly. If direct-connected, the dynamo bed-plate and armature shaft must be carefully aligned and adjusted with respect to the engine shaft, raising or lowering the bed-plates of the corresponding machines by means of thin cast-iron or other wedges; and the generator frame should also be adjusted to its proper height by means of thin strips of metal or fiber set between its supporting feet and the bed-plate. Having thus aligned and leveled the machine, it should next be grouted with thin cement. This is done by arranging a wall of mud or wooden battens around the bed-plates of the machines, and running in thin cement until the holding-down bolt holes are filled, and the cement has risen to the level of the under side of the bed-plate. When the cement has set, the wall may be removed and the nuts on the holding-down bolts drawn up. This firmly fixes the machine upon its foundation.

Mechanical Connections. Various means are employed to connect the engine or other prime mover with the generator, or the motor with the apparatus to be driven. The most important are as follows:

Direct Connection.

Belting.

Rope Driving.

Toothed Gearing.

Other apparatus, such as shafting, clutches, hangers and pulleys, are used in connection with the above means.

Direct Connection. This is the simplest, and for that reason the most desirable, means of connection, provided it can be carried out without involving sacrifices that offset its advantages. This

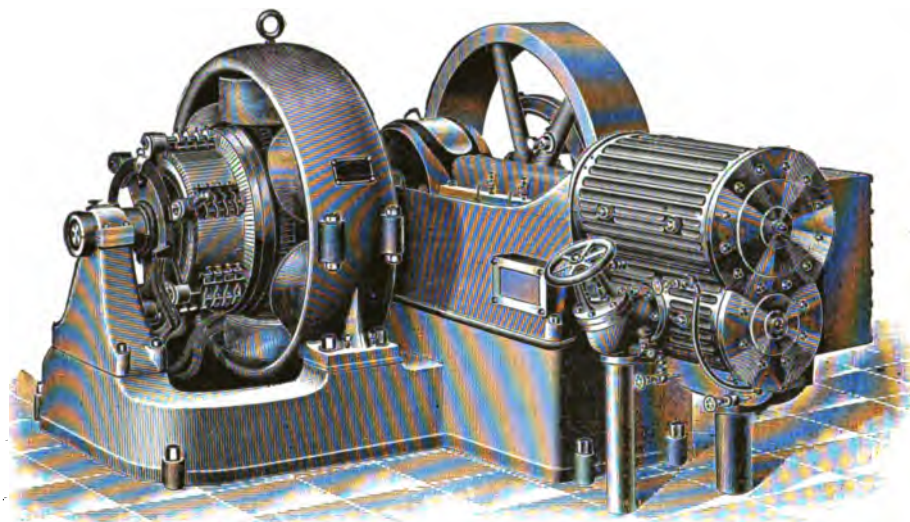


Fig. 3.

method, also called direct coupling or direct driving, compels the engine and generator to run at the same speed, which gives rise to some difficulty, as the most desirable speeds of the two machines do not usually agree. The natural speed of a generator is high, while that of an engine is low; hence to obtain the same voltage from a direct-connected generator, more inductors are necessary, or the flux cut must be increased. Accordingly, the armature and frame of the direct-connected generator must be larger, thus making it a more expensive machine than the belt-driven.

The direct connection of an engine and generator is accomplished in several ways; the simplest of which consists in mounting the armature of the generator directly on one end of the shaft of the engine. This may be accomplished in any one of several

ways. Fig. 3 represents the three-bearing method. Two-and-four-bearing methods are also used. These secure the great advantages: that accurate alignment is readily obtained, and space occupied reduced to a minimum, and the mounting of the bearings on a common sub-base avoids trouble due to unequal settling.

Another form of direct coupling is that in which an engine and a generator, each complete in itself, and each having two bearings, are coupled together by some mechanical device, which may be either rigid or slightly elastic or adjustable. In the former case

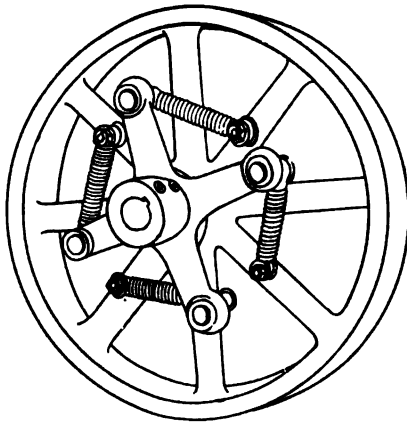


Fig. 4.

the two shafts are practically equivalent to a single one, which, while making it easy to remove either machine for repairs, is somewhat objectionable owing to the fact that it requires larger foundations, and introduces the difficulty of accurately aligning four bearings. The use of a flexible coupling avoids the necessity of perfect alignment, and also the serious trouble that might arise if the settling or the wear of the bearings should be un-

even. There are various forms of flexible coupling. One of the forms manufactured by the Westinghouse Machine Company is shown in Fig. 4, the flexibility being provided by the springs which hold the two parts of the coupling together.

The direct coupling of generators with turbines can be carried out without departing from the natural speed of either machine, since the ordinary speed of a turbine agrees closely with the normal speed of a generator of the corresponding capacity.

The relative efficiency of direct coupling and belting depends greatly upon the conditions; but in general the former is more efficient at or near rated load, and the latter at light loads. *The simplicity, compactness, and positive and noiseless action of direct connection* have caused it to become the most approved method.

Belting. If the generator or motor is not directly connected,

one to the prime mover and the other to the apparatus to be driven, they are usually connected by some form of belting. The kind of belting selected depends greatly upon conditions of drive, distances, etc.; and it may be leather, rawhide, rubber, or rope. For ordinary short drives, leather is the most desirable, though, when the power to be transmitted is small, rawhide belts are also satisfactory, especially as the cost is less than for leather belts. For considerable distances, rope driving answers very well because it is so much lighter and cheaper than an equivalent leather belt, though grooved pulleys are required, making the total cost about the same. Rubber belts are used to advantage in driving generators from water turbines, where the belt might be exposed to moisture. Leather belting is usually the most reliable and satisfactory for general application, except for very short drives, where a form of chain belt works best. There are three thicknesses of leather belting—single, light-double, and double. For use in connection with generators, motors, or other high-speed machinery, the “light-double” belting is usually the best.

The exact amount of power that a given belt is capable of transmitting is not very definite. The ordinary rule is that “single” belt will transmit 1 horse-power for each inch of its width when traveling at a speed of 1,000 feet per minute. If the speed is greater or less, the power is proportionately increased or decreased. The statement of H. P. transmitted is based upon the condition that the belt is in contact with the transmitting pulley around one-half of its circumference, or 180° , which is usually the case. If the arc of contact is less than 180° , the power transmitted is less in the following proportion: An arc of 135° gives 84 per cent, while 90° contact gives only 64 per cent of the power derived from a belt contact of 180° . If on the other hand, the upper side sags downward, which is always desirable, the belt is in contact with more than half the circumference of the pulley; and thus the grip is considerably increased and more power can be transmitted. These facts make it very desirable to have the *loose side of the belt on top*. If the loose side is below, it sags away from the pulley and is also likely to strike the floor.

The complete expression for determining the width of a single belt required to transmit a given horse-power is as follows:

$$W = \frac{H. P. \times 1,000}{S \times C},$$

where W is the width of the belt in inches; $H. P.$ the horse-power to be transmitted; S the speed of the belt in feet per minute, which is equal to the circumference of the driving pulley in feet multiplied by the number of revolutions per minute;* and C a factor dependent upon the arc of contact.

“Double” belting is expected to transmit one and one-half ($1\frac{1}{2}$), and “light-double” one and one-quarter ($1\frac{1}{4}$) times as much power as “single” belting of the same width. Belting formulas are only approximate, and should not be applied too rigidly, since the grip of the belt upon the pulley varies considerably under different conditions of tension, temperature and moisture. The smooth side of a belt should always be run against the pulley, as it transmits more power and is more durable. Belting used for electric

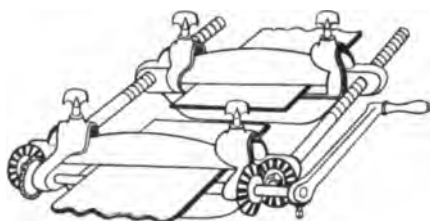


Fig. 5.

machinery, being usually high-speed, should be made “endless” for permanent work, as this makes less noise; but it may be used with laced joints, temporarily. A spliced or “endless” joint is made as follows:—Both ends of the belt are pared down on one

side (opposite) with a sharp knife, into the form of a long thin wedge, so that when laid together a long uniform joint is obtained of the *same thickness as the belt itself*. The parts are then firmly joined with cement and sometimes with rivets also. It may be necessary to splice or lace a belt while in position on the pulleys; and for this purpose some form of belt clamp (Fig. 5) should be employed.

If a belt is ordered endless, or is spliced away from the pulleys, great care should be exercised in determining the exact length required. A string that will not stretch, or preferably a wire put around the pulleys in the position to be occupied by the belt, is the

* NOTE. Belts slip or “creep” on the pulley about 2 per cent; hence, in determining the size of pulleys whose speed must be accurate, the calculated belt speed should be about 2 per cent too high.

best way to avoid a mistake. In measuring for a belt, the generator or motor should be moved on its sliding base so as to make the distance between shaft centers a minimum, in order to allow for the stretch of the belt, which may be as much as $\frac{1}{2}$ inch per foot of length.

The lacing of a belt is a very simple and common method of making a joint; but should not be permanently employed at high speeds for electric machinery belting, as it is liable to pound on the pulleys, producing noise, vibration and sparking; and in the case of generators it is also likely to cause flickering in the lamps. In lacing belts, the ends should be cut perfectly square, and there should be as many stitches of the lace slanting to the left as there are to the right; otherwise the ends of the belt will shift

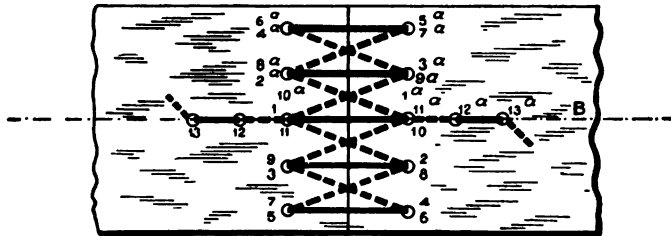


Fig. 6.

sidewise owing to the unequal strain, and the projecting corners may strike or catch in the clothing of persons. A good way to accomplish this is shown in Fig. 6. The various holes should be made with a circular punch, the nearest one being about $\frac{3}{4}$ inch from the side, and the line through the center of the row of holes about 1 inch from the end of the belt. In large belts these distances should be a little greater. A regular belt lacing of strong pliable leather or a special wire is used. The lacing is doubled to find its middle; and the two ends are passed through the two holes marked "1" and "1a," precisely as in lacing a shoe. The two ends are then passed successively through the two series of holes, in the order in which they are numbered, 2, 3, 4, etc., and 2a, 3a, 4a, etc., finishing at 13 and 13a, which are additional holes for securing the ends of the lace. The great advantage of this method of lacing is that the lace lies on the pulley side perfectly parallel to the direction of motion.

12 MANAGEMENT OF DYNAMO-ELECTRIC MACHINERY

Perforated belts are often employed for the reason that a film of air is likely to be imprisoned between the belt and the pulley, thus preventing a good grip. Hence small perforations are sometimes made in the belt, especially for high-speed operation (3,000-5,000 feet per minute), to allow the air to escape; and since these are in the form of narrow slits, with their greatest dimension in the direction of motion, they do not materially reduce the strength of the belt.

Arrangement and Care of Belting. It is very desirable, for satisfactory running, that belts should be reasonably long and nearly horizontal. The distance between the centers of two belt-connected pulleys should be not less than 3 times the diameter of the larger pulley. The belt should be just tight enough to avoid slipping, without straining the shaft or bearings. The two shafts which are to be belt-connected must be perfectly parallel, and the centers of the face of the driving and driven pulleys must be exactly opposite to each other, in a straight line perpendicular to the axis of the shafts. The machines should then be turned over slowly with the belt on, to see if the latter tends to run to one side of the pulley, which would show that it is not yet properly "lined up," in which case one or both machines should be slightly shifted, until the belt runs properly. If possible, the machine and belt should be set and adjusted so as to cause the armature to move back and forth in the bearings while running, on account of the side motion of the belt, and thus make the commutator wear more smoothly, and distribute the oil in the bearings.

It is always desirable to have belts as pliable as possible; hence the occasional use of a good belt dressing—as neatsfoot oil, etc.—is recommended. Rosin and other sticky substances are sometimes applied to increase the adhesion; but this is a practice allowable only in an emergency, as it may destroy the belt surface.

In places where the belting is very much exposed, and liable to catch in the clothing of any person, it is advisable to surround it by a railing or box.

Rope Driving possesses advantages over ordinary belting in some cases. The rope runs in V-shaped grooves in the peripheries of the pulleys, and thereby obtains a great grip by a sort of wedging action. The kinds of rope ordinarily employed for this pur-

pose are cotton, hemp, rawhide and wire. The general advantages are:

1. Economy in cost.
2. Large amount of power that can be transmitted with a given diameter and width of pulley, on account of the grip obtained.
3. It is almost noiseless.
4. Ropes, on account of their lightness, can be used to transmit power over greater distances than are possible with any other form of belting; and also for very short distances on account of the wedging action. Manila rope is generally used in the United States, being of three strands, hawser laid, and may be from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to 2 inches in diameter. The breaking strength varies from 7,000 to 12,000 pounds per square inch of cross-section. It has been found that the best results are obtained when the tension in the driving side of the rope is only 3 to 4 per cent of the breaking strength.

The diameter of a single rope necessary to transmit a required H. P. is given by the formula:

$$D^2 = \frac{825 \text{ H.P.}}{V(200 - \frac{V^2}{1,072})}$$

in which H. P. = horse-power transmitted;

V = velocity of rope in feet per second;

D = diameter of rope in inches.

The maximum power is obtained at a speed of about 84 feet per second. With higher speeds the centrifugal force becomes so great that the power transmitted decreases rapidly, and at about 142 feet per second it counteracts the whole allowable tension (200 D^2 pounds) and no power is transmitted.

Arrangement of Rope Belting. There are two methods of arranging rope transmission: one consists in using several separate belts; and the other employs a single endless rope which passes spirally around the pulley several times and is brought back to the first groove by a slanting idle pulley, and therefore is called the "wound" system. The separate ropes do not require the carrying-over pulley, and if one rope breaks, those remaining are sufficient to transmit the power temporarily; whereas an accident with the single-rope system entirely interrupts the service. In

14 MANAGEMENT OF DYNAMO-ELECTRIC MACHINERY

the "multi-rope" system it is practically impossible to make and maintain the belts of exactly equal length, hence the tensions on the various ropes differ, and they hang at different heights on the slack side, producing an awkward appearance.

Toothed Gearing possesses the decided advantages of positive action and the ability to give large ratios of speed and small side pressure on the bearings. Nevertheless it is seldom employed for driving generators. As the most extensive applications of gearing for electrical purposes are in connection with railway motors, it will be taken up under that heading.

SHAFTING.

An intermediate or counter shaft is not desirable since it increases the complication and frictional losses of the system; but it is often necessary in the generation or application of electric power, either to obtain a greater multiplication of speed than is possible by belting directly, or to enable a single engine or motor to drive a greater number of machines.

The two important kinds of shaftings are "cold-rolled" and "turned." The former is rolled to the exact size and requires no further treatment. It has the advantage of a smooth, hard surface, but it is difficult to make perfectly true and straight. Turned-steel shafting is most commonly employed, and has the advantage that shoulders, journals, or other variations in size can be easily made on it. The following table gives the ordinary data for shafting:

TABLE I.

Shafting.

Diameter in inches.	Weight lbs. per ft.	Allowable H. P. transmitted at 100 r. p. m.	Width of key seat in inches.
$1\frac{7}{8}$	5.5	4.3	$\frac{3}{8}$
$1\frac{15}{16}$	10.	10.	$\frac{1}{2}$
$2\frac{7}{8}$	15.8	20.	$\frac{3}{4}$
$2\frac{15}{16}$	23.	34.	$\frac{3}{4}$
$3\frac{7}{8}$	31.5	54.	$\frac{7}{8}$
$3\frac{15}{16}$	41.	80.	1
$4\frac{7}{8}$	62.8	156.	1
$5\frac{7}{8}$	91.1	270.	1

With speeds greater than 100 r. p. m., the allowable H. P. varies directly in proportion to the speed employed.

ASSEMBLING OF THE MACHINE.

In unpacking and putting the machine together, great care should be used to avoid the least injury to any part, to clean scrupulously each part, and to put the parts together in exactly the right way. This care is particularly important with regard to the shaft, bearings, magnetic joints, and electrical connections, from

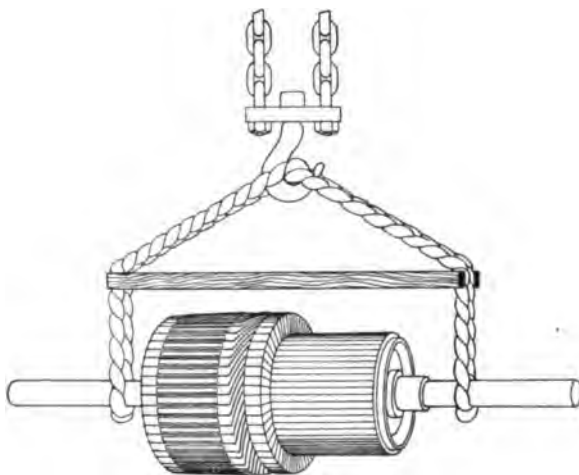


Fig. 7.

which every particle of grit, dust, metal chips, waste, etc., should be removed. It is advisable to study carefully the blue prints or instruction matter usually sent with each machine, before attempting to put it together. The armature must be handled with great care in order not to injure the wires and their insulation as well as the commutator and shaft. The armature should be handled as far as possible by the shaft, and when it must be placed on the ground a pad of cloth or layer of boards should be interposed. A convenient form of sling for handling armatures with their shafts in position is shown in Fig. 7. The bearings should be carefully cleaned, set in exactly the right positions, and firmly secured. The tops should be left loose for a short time, so that the tendency to heat up at the first run may be decreased; and after that they

should be drawn up tight. The field frame should be set so that the air gap is the same for all pole pieces, as otherwise the machine will be magnetically unbalanced and tend to spark badly.

The adjustment of the brushes, etc., should preferably be left until the machine is electrically connected and ready to receive its trial run.

METHODS OF WIRING.

Before laying the wires, the circuits should be carefully mapped out and the work so planned as to secure the simplest arrangement. The wiring should then be installed neatly and in accordance with the rules of the National Board of Fire Underwriters and of the local department having supervision. Otherwise unnecessary trouble, delay and expense may be incurred.

The wire may be installed in one of two general methods, *viz.*:

Exposed on	{	Cleats.
		Knobs.
		Bushings.
Concealed in	{	Wooden moulding.
		Iron conduit.
		Terra cotta conduit.

The wire should preferably be either rubber-covered or made up in the form of lead cables. Exposed wires possess the advantages of cheapness, as well as accessibility for inspection and repair; and any short circuit or ground is readily seen and removed, whereas it might cause great uncertainty and delay when the wires are concealed.

Concealed conductors, especially where they are placed under the floor, have the great advantage over exposed wiring, in that they are entirely out of the way. This is especially important in large installations, where overhead traveling cranes are almost a necessity.

When alternating-current conductors are enclosed in iron conduits, both wires of each phase, or all the wires, must be run in the same duct, otherwise the inductance would be excessive.

All conductors, including those connecting the machine with the switchboard, as well as the bus bars on the latter, should be of ample size to be free from overheating and excessive loss of voltage. The drop between the generator and switchboard should not exceed $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent at full load, because it interferes with proper

regulation and adds to the less easily avoided drop on the distribution system.

The safe carrying capacities of copper conductors as recommended by the Board of Fire Underwriters, are given in the following table:

TABLE II.
Safe Carrying Capacities of Copper Wires.

B. & S. G.	Rubber Insulation. Amperes.	Other Insulations. Amperes.	Circular Mils.
18.....	8.....	5.....	1,624
16.....	6.....	8.....	2,583
14.....	12.....	16.....	4,107
12.....	17.....	23.....	6,530
10.....	24.....	32.....	10,380
8.....	33.....	46.....	16,510
6.....	46.....	65.....	26,250
5.....	54.....	77.....	33,100
4.....	65.....	92.....	41,740
3.....	76.....	110.....	52,630
2.....	90.....	131.....	66,370
1.....	107.....	156.....	83,690
0.....	127.....	185.....	105,500
00.....	150.....	220.....	133,100
000.....	177.....	262.....	167,800
0000.....	210.....	312.....	211,600
Circular Mils.			
200,000.....	200.....	300.....	
300,000.....	270.....	400.....	
400,000.....	330.....	500.....	
500,000.....	390.....	590.....	
600,000.....	450.....	680.....	
700,000.....	500.....	760.....	
800,000.....	550.....	840.....	
900,000.....	600.....	920.....	
1,000,000.....	650.....	1,000.....	
1,100,000.....	690.....	1,080.....	
1,200,000.....	730.....	1,150.....	
1,300,000.....	770.....	1,220.....	
1,400,000.....	810.....	1,290.....	
1,500,000.....	850.....	1,360.....	
1,600,000.....	890.....	1,430.....	
1,700,000.....	930.....	1,490.....	
1,800,000.....	970.....	1,550.....	
1,900,000.....	1,010.....	1,610.....	
2,000,000.....	1,050.....	1,670.....	

The lower limit is specified for rubber-covered wires to prevent gradual deterioration of the high insulations by the heat of the wires, but not from fear of igniting the insulation. The question of drop is not taken into consideration in the above tables.

The carrying capacity of Nos. 16 and 18, B & S. gage wire is given, but no smaller than No. 14 is to be used.

The safe carrying capacity of insulated aluminum wire is 84 per cent of that given for copper wires of corresponding size and insulation.

Switches are devices for closing and opening the various circuits or branches of an electrical distribution system. A knife switch should always be employed when the capacity of the circuit to be controlled exceeds 10 amperes. It may be single-, double-, or triple-pole; single- or double-throw; and with or without fuses as desired. If the rated capacity of a switch exceeds 25 amperes, its terminals must be provided with lugs into which the ends of the conducting wires should be soldered. The principal parts of a knife switch (Fig. 8) are the *base* (*a*), which must consist of a non-combustible, non-absorptive insulating material; the *hinges* (*b*), which carry the *blades* (*c*); the *contact jaws or clips* (*d*); the *insulating cross-bar* (*e*); and the *handle* (*f*). The hinges, blades

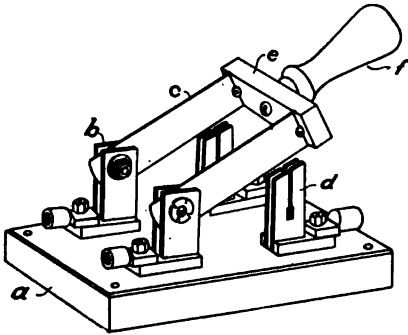


Fig. 8.

and jaws should be made of pure copper, of sufficient cross-section to insure mechanical stiffness and proper carrying capacity, and their contact surfaces must not be less than 1 square inch per 75 amperes of the rating. The hinges and contact jaws must be springy enough to insure good contact with the blades. The blades and jaws must be so shaped

that they open along their entire length simultaneously; otherwise the arc which is formed upon opening a loaded circuit, will burn off the last points of contact. In fact this arc, when produced by a heavy current, is very difficult to control; and switches should never be opened on heavily-loaded circuits except in an emergency. In practice, however, some form of electro-magnetic circuit-breaker is employed for the purpose, and may be operated automatically with overload, or by hand at any time.

Knife switches should be so placed that *gravity tends to open* rather than to close them. They should always be located in dry, accessible places and grouped as far as possible. If located in ex-

posed positions they should be enclosed in slate or equivalently lined cabinets. The distances between the parts of opposite polarity, in an approved knife switch, must never be less than the values given in the following table:

TABLE III.

Switch Data.

125 VOLTS OR LESS :	Minimum Separation of Nearest Metal Parts of Opposite Polarity.	Minimum Break- Distance.
<i>For Switchboards and Panel Boards—</i>		
10 amperes or less.....	$\frac{3}{4}$ inch	$\frac{1}{4}$ inch.
11-25 “	1 “	$\frac{3}{4}$ “
26-50 “	$1\frac{1}{4}$ “	1 “
<i>For Individual Switches—</i>		
10 amperes or less	1 inch	$\frac{3}{4}$ inch.
11- 35 “	$1\frac{1}{4}$ “	1 “
36- 100 “	$1\frac{3}{8}$ “	$1\frac{1}{4}$ “
101- 300 “	$2\frac{1}{4}$ “	2 “
301- 600 “	$2\frac{3}{4}$ “	$2\frac{1}{2}$ “
601-1,000 “	3 “	$2\frac{3}{4}$ “
126 TO 250 VOLTS :		
<i>For all Switches—</i>		
10 amperes or less	$1\frac{1}{2}$ inch	$1\frac{1}{2}$ inch.
11- 35 “	$1\frac{3}{4}$ “	$1\frac{1}{2}$ “
36- 100 “	$2\frac{1}{4}$ “	2 “
101- 300 “	$2\frac{1}{2}$ “	$2\frac{1}{4}$ “
301- 600 “	$2\frac{3}{4}$ “	2½ “
601-1,000 “	3 “	$2\frac{3}{4}$ “

On switchboards, the above spacings for 250 volts direct current are also approved for 440 volts alternating current. Switches on switchboards with these spacings intended for use on alternating-current systems with voltages above 250, must be stamped with the voltage for which they are designed, followed by the letters “A. C.”

251 TO 600 VOLTS :

For all Switches—

10 amperes or less.....	$3\frac{1}{2}$ inch	3 inch.
11- 35 “	4 “	$3\frac{1}{2}$ “
36-100 “	$4\frac{1}{2}$ “	4 “

Auxiliary breaks or the equivalent are recommended for switches designed for over 300 volts and less than 100 amperes, and will be required on switches designed *for use in breaking currents* greater than 100 amperes at a pressure of more than 300 volts.

For three-wire systems switches, must have the break-distance required for circuits of the potential of the outside wires.

Safety Fuses and Cut-outs. Almost all electrical circuits, except those for constant-current arc lighting, are protected from abnormal increase of current by safety fuses. These consist of wires or strips of metal introduced into the circuit, and so designed in cross-section and resistance that they will melt and open the circuit in case of excessive current, before the rest of the system becomes unduly heated.

The requirements for effective safety fuses may be stated as follows:

1. They should melt at a definite current.
2. They should not change in this respect by the effect of time, nor by heating or other action of the current, nor, in fact, under any reasonable conditions.
3. They should act promptly.
4. They should give firm and lasting contacts with the terminals to which they are attached.

These fuses are of two general types:

- (a) Open or link fuses.
- (b) Enclosed or cartridge fuses.

The open or link fuses (Fig. 9) consist of strips of fusible



Fig. 9.

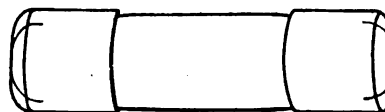


Fig. 10.

alloy provided with copper terminals. Each size is designed to carry a certain normal current, but will melt and open the circuit when the current exceeds that rating by 25 per cent. When a link fuse "blows" as a result of overloading, the rupture is accompanied by a flash, and by spattering of the fused material. With large currents this phenomenon is a source of danger, and the use of enclosed fuses is accordingly recommended whenever the rating of the fuse exceeds 25 amperes.

Enclosed fuses (Fig. 10) have a casing around the fusible material, which prevents the dangerous spattering and which also smothers the arc that tends to form whenever a fuse blows.

Fuses should always be employed when the size of the wire changes, or where connections between any electrical apparatus and

the conductors are made. They must be mounted on slate, marble, or porcelain bases; and all metallic fittings employed in making electrical contacts must have sufficient cross-section to insure mechanical stiffness and carrying capacity.

Electro-magnetic Circuit-Breakers or **Limit Switches** are frequently used in place of fuses to protect electrical circuits. Their

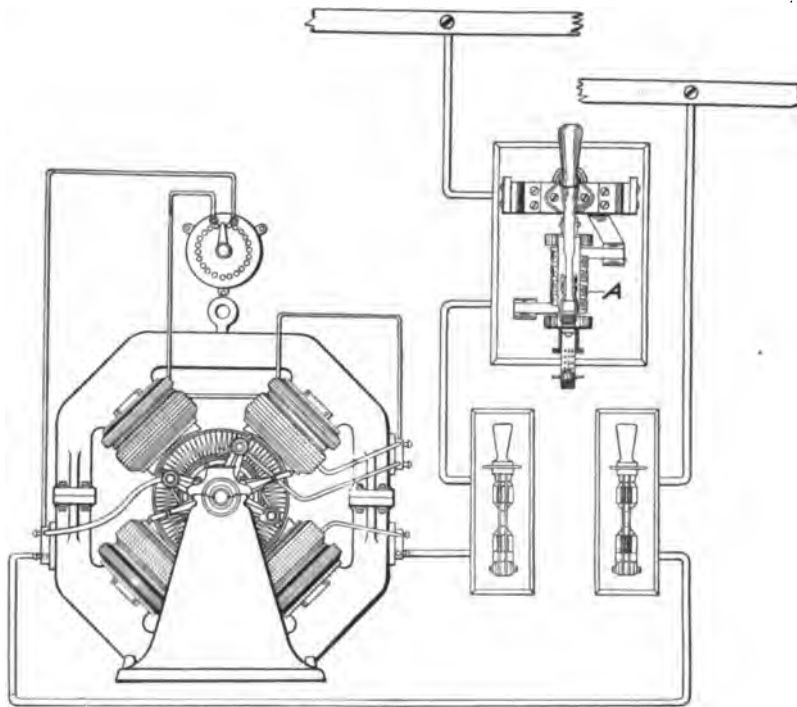


Fig. 11.

general construction and application are indicated in Fig. 11. The current is led through a helix A the electro-magnetic action of which, when the current reaches a predetermined limit, automatically releases the blades from contact with the jaws and thus opens the circuit. The final break occurs at carbon tips, thus preventing destructive arcing at the copper contacts. Circuit-breakers possess the following advantages over fuses:

1. They can be employed as switches if desired.
2. They can easily be reset and thus put into condition for acting again.

3. Their range can be easily varied within considerable limits.

4. They can also be made to operate "tell tales" whenever the circuit they control is opened.

On account of these general advantages, their use is advisable on switchboards of systems that are liable to frequent overloads. The circuits, however, should, as a rule, be provided also with fuses, since it is possible that the circuit-breaker may fail to open, owing to corrosion or other cause.

Starting-Boxes should always be furnished with D. C. motors, for the following reason: If the line voltage should be applied directly to the terminals of the armature while it is standing still, a very excessive current would flow, since the resistance is low and no C. E. M. F. exists. Hence, to prevent injury to the winding, a resistance is inserted between one supply terminal and the armature in order to reduce the electromotive force at the motor terminals while it is speeding up, the resistance being gradually reduced until completely removed when rated speed is reached. All motor starting-boxes must also be provided with a **no-voltage release**. This consists of an electro-magnet in series with the shunt-field circuit, which holds the rheostat arm in the operating position as long as current flows through the shunt field from the line. If the line switch be opened or the shunt-field circuit accidentally broken, the device becomes demagnetized and releases the arm, which returns to its starting position (all resistance in circuit) by the action of a spring or of gravity. The starting-boxes of larger motors are also frequently equipped with **overload releases**. These, practically, are electro-magnetic circuit-breakers which open the supply lines if the motor becomes greatly overloaded. The general arrangement of switches, cut-outs and starting-boxes should be in accordance with the following extract from the Rules of the National Board of Fire Underwriters:

"Each motor and starting-box must be protected by a cut-out and controlled by a switch, said switch plainly indicating whether 'on' or 'off.' The switch and rheostat must be located within sight of the motor, except in cases where special permission to locate them elsewhere is given, in writing, by the Inspection Department having jurisdiction.

"Where the circuit-breaking device on the motor-starting rheostat disconnects all wires of the circuit, this switch may be omitted.

"Overload-release devices on motor-starting rheostats will not be considered to take the place of the cut-out required if they are inoperative during the starting of the motor.

“The switch is necessary for entirely disconnecting the motor when not in use; and the cut-out, to protect the motor from excessive currents due to accidents or careless handling when starting. An automatic circuit-breaker disconnecting all wires of the circuit, may, however, serve as both switch and cut-out.”

The **Various Kinds of Circuit** on which motors and generators are commonly used, and the best type of machine in each case, are as follows :

TABLE IV.
Types of Machine for Various Kinds of Circuits.
DIRECT-CURRENT, CONSTANT-POTENTIAL.

Circuits on which potential or voltage is kept constant; machines, lamps, etc., being run in parallel.

Currents intended for—	Potential.	Generator should be—	Motor should be—
Electro-metal-lurgy.	1 to 150 volts	Shunt-wound.	Not used.
Incandescent lighting.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 110 \text{ to } 125 \text{ volts} \\ \text{(2-wire sys.)} \\ 220 \text{ to } 250 \text{ volts} \\ \text{(2-or 3-wire sys.)} \end{array} \right\}$	Shunt- or compound-wound.	Shunt-wound for constant speed. Sometimes series- or compound-wound for variable speed.
Electric railway Electric power.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 500 \text{ to } 660 \text{ volts} \end{array} \right\}$	Compound-wound.	Series-wound for railway. Shunt-wound for stationary.

DIRECT, CONSTANT-CURRENT.

Circuits on which current or amperes are kept constant; machines, lamps, etc., being run in series.

Circuits intended for—	Current in Amperes.	Generator should be—	Motor.
Arc lighting.	6.8 or 9.6	Series-wound with current regulator.	No longer used.

ALTERNATING-CURRENT, POLYPHASE.

Constant-potential, two- or three-phase currents.

Circuits intended for—	Potential in Volts.		Generator should be—	Motor is—
Power transmission.	On the line, 5,000 to 60,000.	In the machines, varying 500 to 12,000	Separately excited.	Synchronous or Induction.

24 MANAGEMENT OF DYNAMO-ELECTRIC MACHINERY

ALTERNATING-CURRENT, SINGLE-PHASE.

Almost always constant-potential.

Circuits intended for—	Potential in Volts.		Generator should be—	Motor should be—
	Primary,	Secondary,		
Incandescent lighting. Arc lighting. Sometimes constant-current. Electric power.	1,000 or more,	104 or 208.	Separately excited. Also sometimes composite-wound.	Synchronous. Induction. Series. Repulsion.

Diagrams of Connections are given for each important case to show what is actually required. These merely represent the path of the currents in the simplest way, the important thing being to have these paths right, and to know which parts or wires are to be connected. The case of plants operating with only a single generator will be first considered, and then the parallel or series operation of several machines described.

Shunt Dynamo, Supplying Constant - Potential Circuit.

A machine of the above type is represented in Fig. 12, with the necessary connections. The brushes are connected to the two conductors forming the main circuit; also to the field-magnet coils S through a resistance-box R , to regulate the strength of current

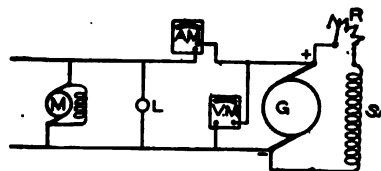


Fig. 12.

and therefore the magnetism in the field. A voltmeter is also connected to the two brushes or main conductors, to measure the voltage or electrical pressure between them. One of the main conductors is connected through an ammeter A , which measures the total current on the main circuit. The lamps L , or motors M , are connected in parallel between the main conductors or between branches from them. This represents the ordinary low-tension system for electric light and

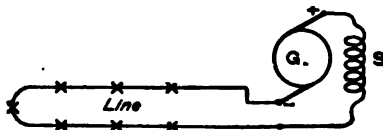


Fig. 13.

power distribution from isolated plants or central stations.

Series Dynamo Supplying Constant-Current Circuits. The connections in this case are extremely simple, the armature, field coils, ammeter, main circuit, and lamps all being connected in one series (Fig. 13), the current being kept constant. This system is used for series D. C. arc lighting.

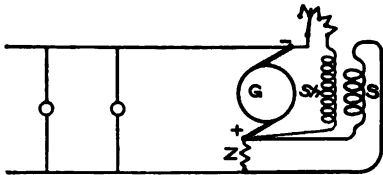


Fig. 14.

Compound Direct-Current Dynamo. This machine is a combination of the two foregoing types as regards field winding;

but its load of lamps and motors are connected in parallel, as shown in Fig. 14. The resistance Z is known as the "series" shunt, and is for adjusting the percentage of compounding. The greater the resistance of Z , the greater the current passing through the series field, and the greater the compounding. This type of machine is most extensively employed in electric railway and in isolated plant work.

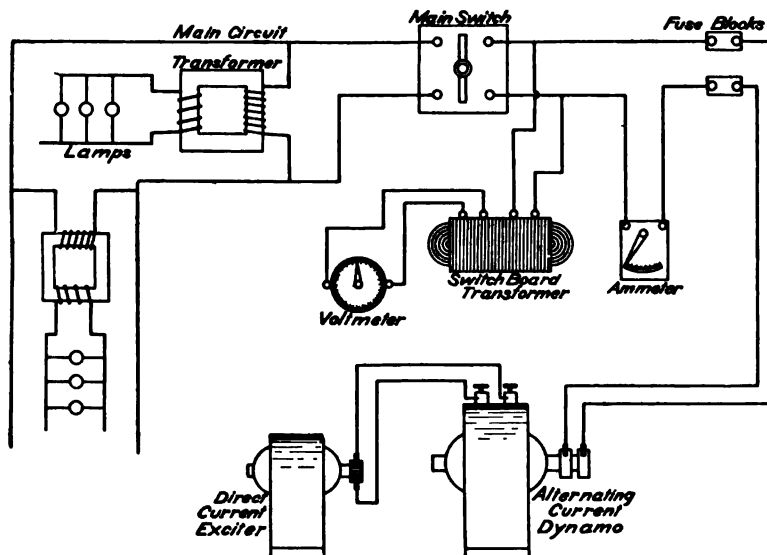


Fig. 15.

Alternating-Current Plants. The connections for a single-phase installation are shown in Fig. 15, in which the names of the

different parts are given. This system is extensively used for lighting over considerable distances, and is very well adapted to street railway work. The wiring of a two-phase system is essentially double that given above, and can be treated as a system consisting of two single-phase circuits.

The wiring of a three-phase system is as shown in Figs. 16a and 16b, the former being known as the "Y" system or "Star"

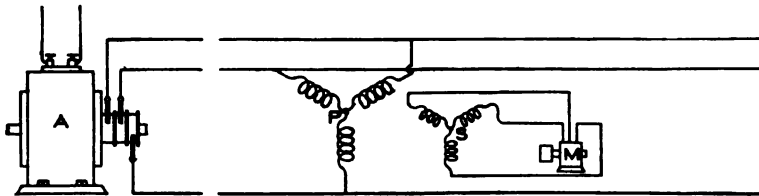


Fig. 16a.

system, and the latter as the "Delta" (Δ) system or "Mesh" system. When the Y system is required for both lighting and power, it is arranged as shown in Fig. 16c.

The **Direction of Rotation** of the various machines is sometimes a matter of doubt or trouble. Almost any generator or motor is intended to be run in a certain direction; that is, it is called "right-handed" or "left-handed" according to whether the armature does or does not revolve like the hands of a clock, when looked at from the pulley end. Generators and motors are usually

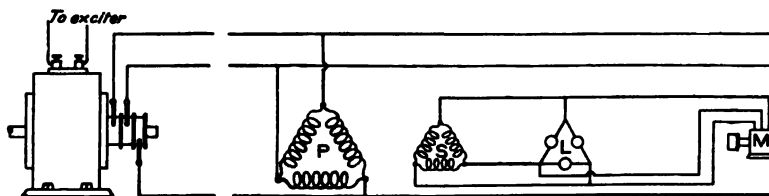


Fig. 16b.

designed to be right-handed, but the manufacturer will make them left handed if specially ordered. This may be required because the other pulley to which the machine is to be connected happens to revolve left-handed; or it may be necessary in order to bring the loose side of the belt on top, or to permit the machine to occupy a certain position where space is limited.

To reverse the direction of rotation of an ordinary shunt (or series) direct-current bipolar motor, the brushes may simply be reversed as indicated in Fig. 17, without changing any connection. This changes the point of contact of each brush tip 180° .

If the machine is multipolar, a similar change must be made, amounting to 90° in a four-pole, 45° in an eight-pole machine, etc.

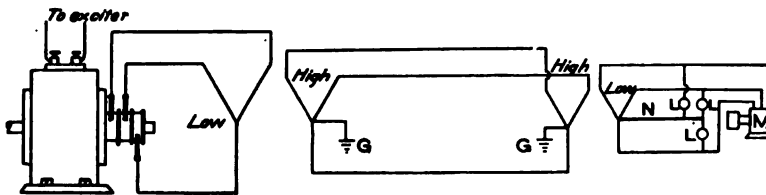


Fig. 16c

The direction of the current and the polarity of the field magnets remain the same as before; all that is changed is the direction of rotation and the position of the brushes. This applies to any machine (either motor or generator) except arc dynamos and one or two other peculiar machines, which require to be run in a certain direction to suit the regulating apparatus.

A separately excited alternating-current generator can be reversed in direction of rotation without changing any connection. A self-exciting or compound-wound alternator requires the brushes that supply the direct current to the field to be reversed upon the

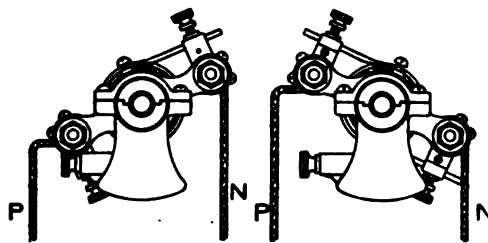


Fig. 17.

commutator, and their tips moved through an angle as above stated, if the rotation is to be reversed.

In any case, copper brushes (unless they be gauze brushes pressing radially upon the commutator) should point in the direction of rotation; but carbon brushes, particularly if they are per-

pendicular to the surface of the commutator, allow the armature to be revolved in either direction.

If the direction of the current from a generator is opposite to that desired, the two wires leading from it should exchange places in the terminals. If this is not desirable, the residual magnetism may be reversed by passing through the field winding a current opposite in direction to the original current.

Changing the direction of the current by reversing the main wires or otherwise, does not reverse the direction of rotation of any motor, since it reverses *both* the armature and the field. The way to reverse the direction of rotation is to reverse *either* the armature or the field connection *alone*, leaving the other the same as before.

Examination before Starting. The machine should be cleaned throughout, especially the commutator, brushes, electrical connections, etc. Any metal dust on the commutator or near electrical connections should be removed, as it is very likely to cause short circuits or grounds. Examine the machine carefully, and make sure that there are no screws or other parts that are loose or out of place. See that the oil-cups have a sufficient supply of oil, that the passages for the oil are clean, and that the feed is at the proper rate. In the case of self-oiling bearings, the rings or other means for carrying oil should work freely. See that the belt, if used, is in place, and that it has the proper tension. If the machine is being started for the first time, it should be turned a few times by hand, or run very slowly, in order to determine whether the shaft revolves easily and the belt runs on centers of pulleys.

The brushes should be carefully examined, and adjusted to make good contact with the commutator at the proper point, the switches connecting the machine to the circuit being left open. The machine should then be started with care, and brought up to full speed gradually, if possible. The person who starts either a dynamo or a motor should closely watch the machine and everything connected with it, and should be ready to throw it out of circuit and stop it instantly if the least thing seems to be wrong. He should then be sure to find out and correct the trouble before starting again.

Starting a Generator. A generator is usually brought up to

speed either by starting its engine or other prime mover, or by connecting it to a source of power already in motion. The former should be attempted only by a person competent to manage steam engines or the prime mover in question. The mere mechanical connecting of a generator to a source of power is usually not difficult; but it should be done carefully and intelligently, even if it only requires throwing in a friction-clutch or shifting a belt from an idle pulley. To put a belt on a pulley in motion is difficult and dangerous, particularly if the belt is large or the speed is high; and should not be tried except by one who knows just how to do it. Even if a stick is used for this purpose, it is apt to be caught and thrown around by the machinery unless used in exactly the right way.

In many cases generators are brought to full speed before the brushes are put in contact with the commutator; but this is not necessary. If the brushes are in contact before starting, they can be more easily and perfectly adjusted, and the E. M. F. will come up slowly, so that any fault or difficulty will develop gradually and can be corrected, or the machine stopped, before any injury is done. In fact, if the machine is working alone on a system, and is absolutely free from any danger of short-circuiting any other machine or storage battery on the same circuit, it may be started while connected to the circuit, but not otherwise (see next article). With a large number of lamps connected to the circuit, the field magnetism and voltage might not be able to "build up" until the line is disconnected.

If one generator is to be connected to another or to a circuit having other generators or a storage battery working upon it, the greatest care should be taken. This coupling together of generators can be done perfectly, however, if the correct method is followed, but is likely to cause serious trouble if any mistake is made.

Two or more machines are often connected to a common circuit. This is especially the case in central stations where the load varies so much that, while one generator may be sufficient for certain hours, two, three, or more machines may be required at other times. The various ways in which this is done depend upon the character of the machines and of the circuit.

Generators may be connected together either in parallel or in series.

Generators in Parallel. In this case the $+$ (positive or plus) terminals are connected together or to the same line, and the $-$ (negative or minus) terminals are connected together or to the other line. The currents (*i. e.*, amperes) of the machines are thereby added, but the E. M. F. (volts) is not increased. The chief condition for the running of generators in parallel is that their voltages shall be equal, but their current capacities may be different.

For example: A generator producing 10 amperes may be connected to another generating 100 amperes, provided the voltages agree. Parallel working is therefore suited to constant-potential circuits. A generator to be connected in parallel with others or with a storage battery, must first be brought up to its proper speed, E. M. F., and other working conditions; otherwise it will short-circuit the system, and might burn out its armature. Hence it should not be connected to a circuit in parallel with others until its voltage has been tested and found to be equal to, or slightly (not over 1 or 2 per cent) greater than, that of the circuit. If the voltage of the dynamo is less than that of the circuit, the current will flow back through it and cause it to run as a motor. The direction of rotation is the same, however, if it is shunt-wound; and no great harm results from a slight difference of potential; but compound-wound machines require more careful handling.

Direct-Current Dynamos in Parallel are always Shunt-Wound (or Compound-Wound). The test for equal voltages may be made by first measuring the E. M. F. of the circuit and then of the machine by one voltmeter; or two voltmeters, one connected to each, may be compared (Fig. 18); or a differential voltmeter may be used. Another method is to connect the dynamo to the circuit through a high resistance and a galvanometer; and when the latter indicates no current, it shows that the voltage of the dynamo is equal to that of the circuit. A rougher and simpler way to do this is to raise the voltage of the dynamo until its "pilot-lamp," or other lamp fed by it, is fully as bright as the lamps on the circuit, and then to connect the dynamo to the cir-

cuit. Of course the lamps compared should be intended for the same voltage and in normal condition. Be sure to connect the positive terminal of the dynamo to the positive conductor, and the negative terminal to the negative conductor (Fig. 18); otherwise there will be a very bad short circuit.

When the dynamo is first connected in this way, it should supply only a small amount of current to the circuit (as indicated by its ammeter), and its voltage should then be gradually raised until it generates its proper share of the total current; otherwise it will cause a sudden jump in the brightness of the lamps on the circuit.

Series-Wound Dynamos in Parallel Not Used. If the machine is series-wound, the back current just described would cause a reversal of field mag-

netism and a very bad short circuit of double voltage. In fact, series dynamos in parallel are in unstable equilibrium, because if either tends to generate too little current, its own field, which is in series, is weakened, and thus still further reduces its current and probably will reverse the machine. This arrangement is therefore not used. One way in which this difficulty might be overcome is by causing each to excite the other's field magnet, so that if one generates too much current, it strengthens the field of the other and thus counteracts its own excess of power.

Another plan is to excite both fields by one machine, or, better, by both machines jointly, which is accomplished by connecting together the two + brushes and the two - brushes respectively, by the line and by what is called an **equalizer** (Fig. 19). In this way the electrical pressure at the terminals of the two armatures is made the same, and the currents in the two fields are also made equal. Series machines are not often run in parallel, but the principles just explained help the understanding of the next case, which is very important.

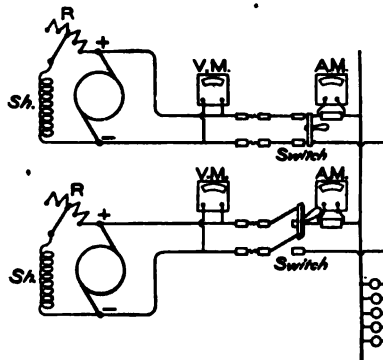


Fig. 18.

Compound Dynamos in Parallel. Since the field magnets of these machines are wound with series coils as well as with shunt coils, the coupling of them is a combination of the shunt and series cases just described.

The manner of connecting two or more compound dynamos to operate in parallel, is represented in Fig. 20, A being the armature, B the series, and C the shunt-field coils. R is the shunt-field

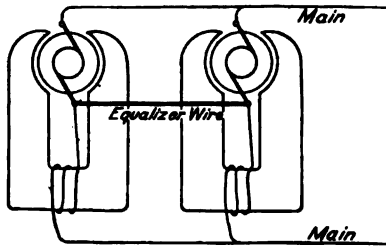


Fig. 19.

rheostat; D and F are switches connecting the main terminals of the machine with the bus bars G and I, respectively; and E is a switch to connect the equalizer II with the brush end of the series coil B.

Assume that machine No. 1 is already in operation with its switches D, F, and E closed, and

that it is desired to have machine No. 2 thrown in circuit. The procedure is as follows:

Bring machine No. 2 up to its rated speed, and adjust its pressure by means of the shunt-field rheostat until it is a little greater (about 1 per cent) than the difference of potential between the bars G and I. This fact may be ascertained by comparing two voltmeters connected to the dynamo and to the bus bars respectively; or by means of a single voltmeter connected through a double-throw switch, first to one and then to the other, which avoids the error due to a difference between two instruments. Another plan is to employ a differential voltmeter, that is, one having two windings on the movable coil, so that it indicates directly the difference in voltage between the two parts of the system.

After the pressure of the *incoming* dynamo has been properly regulated, the three switches E, F, and D are closed in the order named. If these points should be closed simultaneously by means of a triple-pole switch, a considerable current might flow through the series field winding, tending to increase still further the voltage of this dynamo, at the same time taking current away from the series coils of the other machines, and thereby reducing their potential. The shifting of the load thus produced might be so

sudden and so great as to be objectionable. This action, however, is not of sufficient importance to overbalance the many advantages afforded by the use of a switch in which the three are combined as a triple-pole switch, thus guarding against the possibility of any accident due to closing the wrong circuit first.

After the machines have been thrown in parallel, their volt-

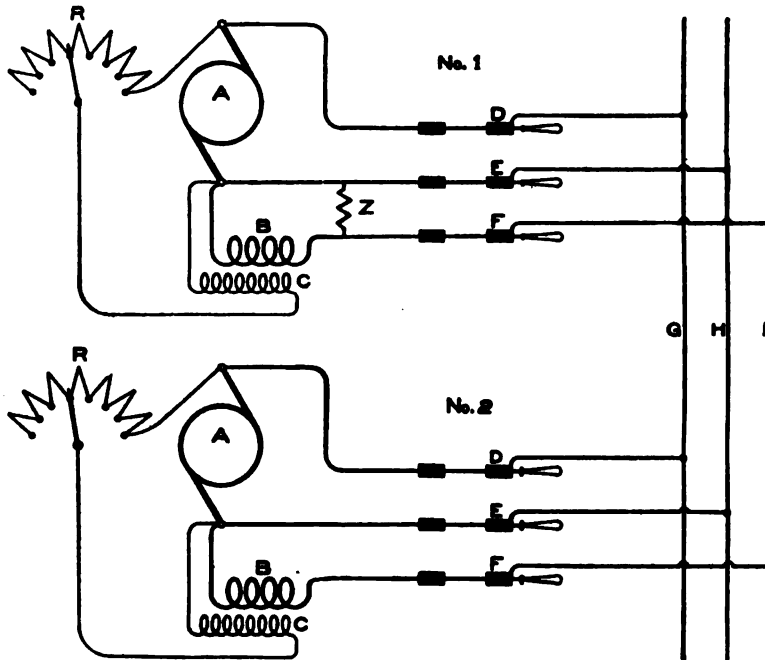


Fig. 20.

ages should be adjusted by the shunt-field rheostats so that the load is properly divided between them.

Compound dynamos of different size or current capacity may also be coupled as described, provided, of course, their voltages are equal; and provided also that the resistances of the series field coils, together with their leads to the bus bar, are inversely proportional to the current capacities of the several machines; that is, if a dynamo produces twice as much current, its series coil and lead should have half the resistance. It is further necessary that the two machines should agree in their action, so that a given increase in load will produce the same effect upon their voltages.

If they are not in agreement, they may be adjusted by slightly increasing the resistance of the series coil of that machine which tends to take too large a share of the load. This may be done by simply interposing a few extra feet of conductor of the same current capacity as the series coil, between the latter and the main conductor or bus bar. The shunts which are almost always used to adjust the effect of the series coils in compound dynamos (shown at Z in machine No. 1, Fig. 20), operate properly in the case of machines working *singly*, but are worthless for machines in parallel. The *resistances of the series coils themselves* must be adjusted as explained above, when two or more compound machines are run in parallel. The use of iron for this shunt makes the compounding effect in the dynamo more uniform, because its resistance, rising as the current through it increases, throws a greater fraction of the current through the series coils at full load, and compensates for the fact that the field magnetism, and consequently the voltage, does not increase proportionately with the increasing load current.

Shunt-wound dynamos run in parallel tend to steady each other, for, if one happens to run too fast, it has to do more work, which opposes the increase of speed; and it also takes part of the load off the other machines, which makes them run faster, thus producing equality. This mutual regulation will take care of any slight difference between machines, such as that caused by the slip of the belt, or even small differences in the governing action of the different engines that may be driving them. Compound-wound dynamos have very much less mutual regulation, owing to the effect of the series coil; and it is necessary that their speeds, voltages, etc., should regulate much more exactly than with simple shunt machines. They often work badly together owing to carelessness or to imperfect agreement between them, but with proper care and good apparatus they run well in parallel.

If generators are located at considerable distances from the switchboard, the equalizing connection may be run directly from one machine to the other with the equalizing switch (E, Fig. 20) on the frame of each, instead of running to the switchboard. This saves copper, especially in the case of large generators.

Alternators in Parallel. To run two alternators in parallel,

several conditions have to be fulfilled: The incoming machine—as in the case of direct-current machines—must be brought up to nearly the same voltage as the first one; it must operate at exactly the same frequency; and, at the moment of switching in parallel, it must be in phase with the first machine. This correspondence of frequency and phase is called **synchronism**.

It is impossible with mechanical speed-measuring instruments to determine the speed as accurately as is necessary for this purpose. There is, however, a very simple method of electrically determining small differences in speed or frequency. In Fig. 21, let *M* and *N* represent two single-phase alternators, which can be connected by means of the single-pole switch *AB*. Across the terminals of the switch is connected an incandescent lamp *L*, capable of standing twice the voltage of either machine. When *AB* is open, the circuit between the machines is completed through *L*. The two machines may be connected in parallel as follows: Assuming machine *M* already in operation, bring up machine *N*

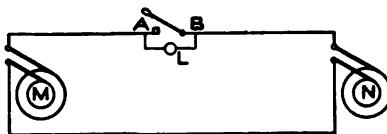


Fig. 21

to approximately the proper speed, and voltage; then watch lamp *L*. If machine *N* is running a very little slower or faster than machine *M*, the lamp *L* will glow for one moment and be dark the next. At the instant when the voltages are equal in pressure and phase, *L* will remain dark; but when the phases are displaced by half a period, the lamp will glow at its maximum brilliancy. Since the flickering of the lamp is dependent upon the difference in frequency, the machines should not be thrown in parallel while this flickering exists. The prime mover of the incoming machine must be brought to the proper speed; and the nearer machine *N* approaches synchronism, the slower the flickering. When it is very slow, we can use the moment the lamp is dark to throw the machines in parallel by closing the switch across *AB*. The machines are then in phase, and tend to remain so, since if one slows down the other will drive it as a motor. It is better to close the switch when the machines are approaching synchronism than when they are receding from it, that is, at the instant the lamp becomes dark.

This method of synchronizing is open to the following objections:

(a) The lamps may be dark with considerable difference in voltage. For instance, a 110-volt lamp is dark with a pressure of 20 to 25 volts.

(b) The lamp may be dark owing to a broken filament.

It may thus happen, with this arrangement, that the machines are placed in parallel while there is a considerable difference of voltage or phase existing, and an excessive rush of current will result.

A method not open to the above objections is shown in

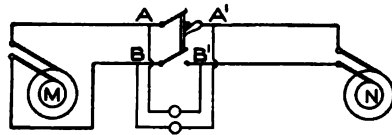


Fig. 22.

Fig. 22. The machines to be switched in parallel are each connected to the bus bars by means of double-pole switches. Two incandescent lamps, of the machine voltage, are cross-connected as shown. If the machines are in phase and the voltages generated are equal in value, the difference of potential between A and a given point is the same as that between A' and the same point; likewise B and B' have the same relative potential values. Hence a lamp connected between A and B' would burn with the same brilliancy as if it were connected directly across AB; likewise with the other lamp. If, however, the machines happen to be directly opposite in phase but to be generating voltage of the same value, A and B' are of the same relative potential value, and B and A' are likewise of the same value; hence lamps cross-connected as in Fig. 22 would be dark. At any other phase difference the lamps will glow, but not so brightly as when in phase. Hence, with this arrangement, the machines should be thrown in parallel when the lamps are on the verge of maximum brightness, a condition readily determined, but not possible with the first method.

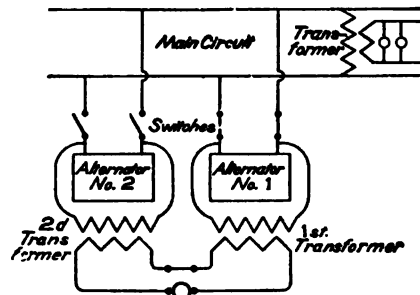


Fig. 23.

The connections as shown in Figs. 21 and 22 are not directly applicable to high-tension working, but require the introduc-

tion of transformers as shown in Fig. 23, which is a modification of Fig. 22. The secondaries (of, say, 50 volts each) should be connected in series with each other and to one 100-volt lamp. When the two machines are opposed in phase, the lamp is dim. If the lamp flickers badly, the phase is not right; but if the lamp is steady at full brightness, the machines are in phase, and they may be connected without disturbing the circuit, by closing the main switch.

If alternators are rigidly connected to each other or to the engine, so that they necessarily run exactly together, there is no need of bringing them into step each time, but they should be adjusted to the same phase in the first place.

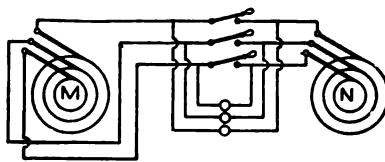


Fig. 24.

The connections of the synchronizing lamps of a three-phase system are similar to those for a single-phase system. For instance, the method employed in Fig. 21 may be extended, and lamps connected as in Fig. 24. If the three lamps simultaneously become dark or bright, the connections are correct, and the three switches may be closed at an instant of darkness. It may happen, however, that the lamps do not become bright or dark simultaneously but successively. This indicates that the order of connection of the leads of one machine does not correspond with that of the other. In this case, transpose the leads of one machine until the proper or simultaneous action of the lamps is obtained. After the machines have been

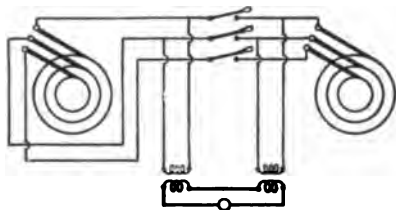


Fig. 25.

properly connected, it is sufficient to synchronize with one of the lamps. Similarly, with high-tension systems, only a single-phase transformer is required, connected as shown in Fig. 25.

Generators in Series. This arrangement is less common than parallel working, and does not usually operate so well, except with series-wound machines on arc circuits, which is very

successful. The conditions are exactly opposite to those in the preceding group—generators in parallel.

To connect machines in series, the positive terminal of one must of course be connected to the negative terminal of the next, and so on. Each must have a current capacity equal to the maximum current on the circuit, but they may differ to any extent in E. M. F. The voltages of machines in series are added together; and therefore danger to persons, insulation, etc., is increased in proportion.

Series-Wound Direct-Current Dynamos in Series are connected in the simple way represented in Fig. 26; but, usually machines connected in series are for arc lighting—for example, when two dynamos, each of 40 lights capacity, are run on one circuit of 80 lamps, in which case the dynamos usually have some

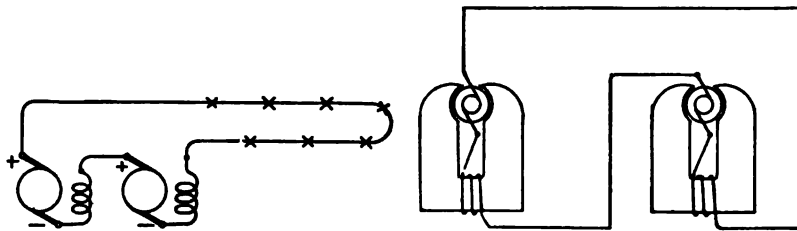


Fig. 26.

form of regulator. These regulators do not usually work well together, because they are apt to “seesaw” with each other. This difficulty may be overcome either by connecting the regulators so that they work together, or by setting one regulator to give full E. M. F. and letting the other alone control the current. This latter plan can be followed only when the variation in load does not exceed the power of one machine. Constant-current dynamos having regulators with little inertia in the moving parts, and thus little tendency to “overshoot,” such as the Brush machine, can be run in series without much trouble.

Shunt or Compound Dynamos in Series run well, provided the shunt-field coils are connected together to form one shunt across both machines. If the machines are compound, all of the series coils must be connected in series with the main circuit. Another plan is to connect each shunt field so that it is fed only

by the armature of the other machine ; or both the shunt coils may be connected so as to be fed by one armature, the series coils being in the main circuit as before.

Alternators in Series. The synchronizing tendency which makes it possible to run alternators in parallel, causes them to get out of step and become opposed to each other when it is attempted to run them in series. It is therefore impracticable to run them in series unless their shafts are rigidly connected so that they must run exactly in phase and thus add their waves of current instead of counteracting each other. This case rarely occurs.

Dynos on the Three-Wire System (Direct-Current). In the ordinary three-wire system for incandescent lighting and power service, no particular precautions are required in starting or connecting the machines; and either of the two arrangements shown in Figs. 27a and 27b may be adopted. The two sides of the system are almost independent of each other, and form practically separate circuits, for which the middle or neutral wire acts as a common conductor. There is, however, a tendency for the dynamos

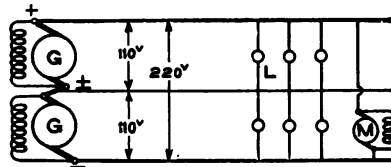


Fig. 27a.

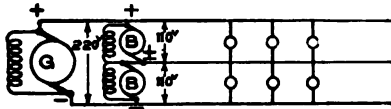


Fig. 27b.

(Fig. 27a) to be reversed in starting up, in shutting down, or in the case of a severe short circuit. This can be avoided by exciting the field coils of all the dynamos from one side of the

system, or from a separate source. To obtain good regulation, it is necessary to balance the load equally on both sides of the system. It is advisable to employ 220-volt motors on 110-volt 3-wire systems, and to connect them across the outside conductors so that the motor load shall not unbalance the system.

KINDS OF MOTORS, CONNECTIONS, AND STARTING.

The general instructions relating to the adjustment of brushes, screws, belt, oil-cups, etc., given in relation to the generator, should be carefully followed preparatory to starting a motor. The actual

starting of a motor is usually a simple matter, since it consists merely in operating a switch; but in each case there are one or more important points to be considered

CONSTANT-POTENTIAL D. C. CIRCUITS.

Shunt-Wound Motor. A motor to operate at nearly constant speed, with varying loads, on a D. C. constant-potential system (110- or 220-volt lighting circuits) is usually plain shunt-wound. This is the commonest form of stationary motor. The field coils are wound with wire of such a size as to have the proper resistance and resulting magnetizing current; and since the potential applied is practically constant, the field strength is constant.

In starting shunt motors, no trouble is likely to occur in connecting the field to the circuit. The difficulty is with the armature current, because the resistance of the armature is very low in order to get higher efficiency and constancy of speed, and the rush of current through it in starting might be twenty or more times the normal number of amperes. To avoid this excessive current, motors are started on constant-potential circuits through a rheostat or "starting-box" containing resistance coils.

The main wires are connected through a branch cut-out (with safety fuses), and preferably also a double-pole knife switch Q, to the motor and box, as indicated in Fig. 28. When the switch Q is closed, the arm S being in its left-hand position, the field circuit is closed through the contact stud f , and the armature circuit is closed through the resistance coils a, a, a , which prevent the rush of current referred to. The motor then starts, and as the speed rises it generates a counter E. M. F., so that the arm S can be turned as shown until all the resistance-coils a, a, a , are cut out, and the motor is directly connected to the circuit and running at full speed. The arm S should be turned slowly enough to allow the speed and counter E. M. F. to come up as the resistances a, a, a are cut out. The arm S should positively close the field circuit first, so that the magnetism reaches its full strength (which may take several seconds) before the armature is connected.

In the arrangement shown in Fig. 28 the release magnet has its coils in series with the field. As long as the motor is in operation, the core is energized and the arm S is held in the posi-

tion shown. If, however, the current supplied to the motor is cut off and the motor comes to rest, the core of the magnet loses its attractive force, and the arm S is released, being automatically moved back to the starting position by a spring.

The coils a, a, a are made of comparatively fine wire, which can carry the current only for a few seconds in a "starting-box;"

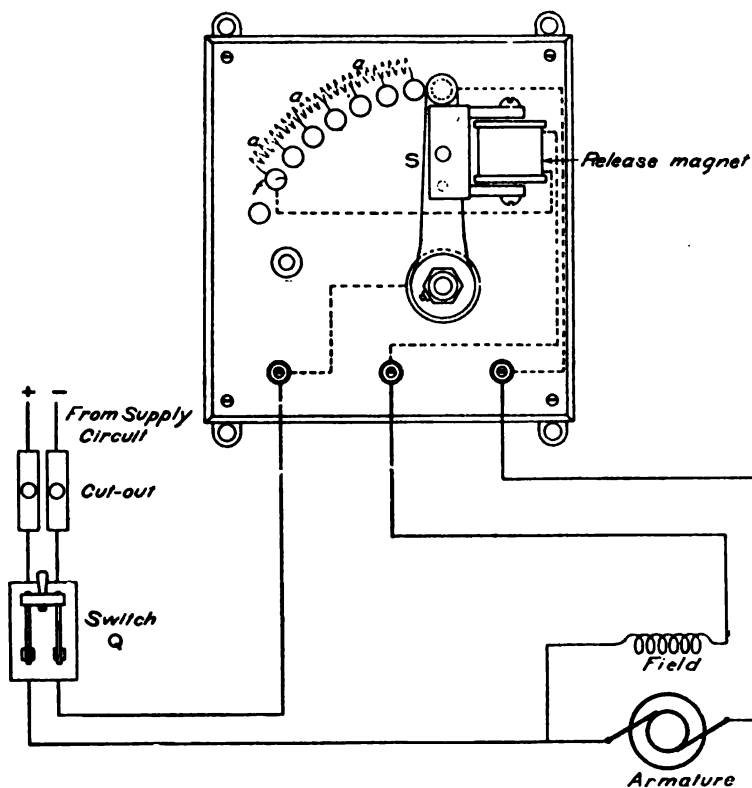


Fig. 28.

but if the wire is large enough to carry the full current continuously, it is called a "regulator," because the arm S may be left so that some of the resistances a, a, a remain in circuit, and they will have the effect of reducing the speed of the motor, which is often very desirable.

In some cases where a circuit is used exclusively for a single motor, the speed is regulated without heavy resistances by varying

the E. M. F. of the dynamo which supplies the circuit. The dynamo regulator is then placed near the motor. The advantage is that the regulator is not compelled to control a heavy current, but a special circuit of unvaried pressure must be provided to keep the field of the motor constant.

The speed control of a shunt motor may be simply obtained as follows:

a. For lower speeds, insert resistance in series with the armature circuit. The resulting I. R. drop reduces the value of the voltage applied to the armature terminals, and thus reduces the speed.

b. For higher speeds, insert resistance in the shunt-field circuit. This reduces the magnetic flux, and to generate the same C. E. M. F. the motor must speed up.

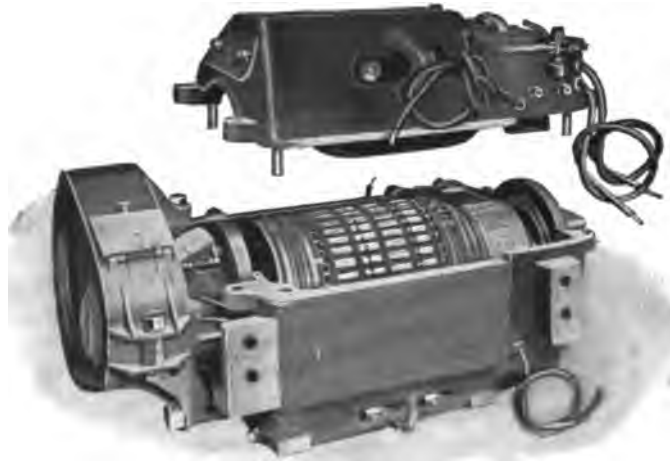


Fig. 29.

The field circuit of a shunt motor should never be opened while pressure is still applied to the armature terminals, as under these conditions the armature current becomes very excessive and the armature is likely to race and probably be damaged. A moderate decrease in field strength only is allowable; otherwise sparking becomes excessive.

Series-Wound Motor. The ordinary electric railway motor on the 550-volt trolley system is the chief example of the class (Fig. 29.) Motors for fans, pumps, or electric elevators and hoists

are either of this kind or of the compound type. A rush of current tends to occur when the series type of motor is started, similar to that in the case just described ; but it is less, because the field-coils are in series, so that their resistance and self induction reduce the excess. Furthermore, the counter E. M. F. is greater even at low speed because the heavy current produces a strong field.

The connections as indicated in Fig. 30 are very simple, the armature, field-coils, and rheostat all being in series and carrying the same current.

The series-wound motor on a constant-potential circuit does not have a constant field strength, and does not tend to run at con-

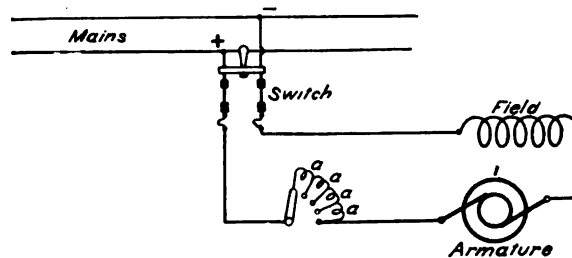


Fig. 30.

stant speed, like a shunt motor. In fact it may "race" and tear itself apart if the load is taken off entirely; it is therefore suited only to railway, pump, fan, or other work where variable speed is desired, or where there is no danger of the load being removed or a belt slipping off. It is also used where the potential is subject to sudden and large drops, as on the ends of long trolley circuits, because in such a case a shunt motor becomes momentarily a generator and sparks very badly. The fields of series motors are sometimes "overwound," that is, so wound that they will have their full strength with even one-half or one-third of the normal current. The objects are to secure a nearly constant speed with varying loads, to enable the motor to run at high efficiency when drawing small currents, and to prevent sparking at heavy loads.

In multipolar motors having more than two field-coils, the coils are all connected together, and are equivalent to the single pairs of coils shown in the several diagrams. Being separated,

however, it is sometimes necessary to trace out the connections. Fig. 31 represents the necessary connections for a four-pole motor, shunt-wound and series-wound.

Differentially-Wound Motor. This is a shunt-wound motor with the addition of a coil of large wire, on the field, connected in series with the armature in such a way as to oppose the magnetizing effect of the shunt winding and weaken the field, thus causing the motor to speed up when the load is increased, as an offset to the slowing-down effect of load.

It was formerly used, for obtaining very constant speed, but it has been found that a plain shunt motor is sufficiently constant for almost all cases. The differential motor, if overloaded, has

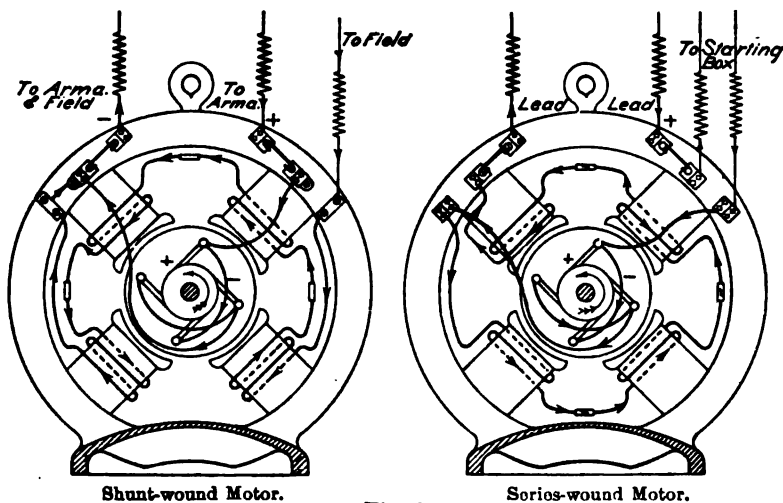


Fig. 31.

the great disadvantage that the current in the opposing (series) field-coil becomes so great as to kill the field magnetism; and instead of increasing or keeping up its speed, the armature slows down or stops, and is likely to burn out; whereas a plain shunt motor can increase its power greatly for a minute or so when overloaded, and will probably throw off the belt or carry the load until the latter decreases to the normal amount.

Compound-Wound Motor. This type of motor is also provided with a shunt and a series-field winding, Fig. 32, but in this instance they magnetize the field in the same direction, or, in other

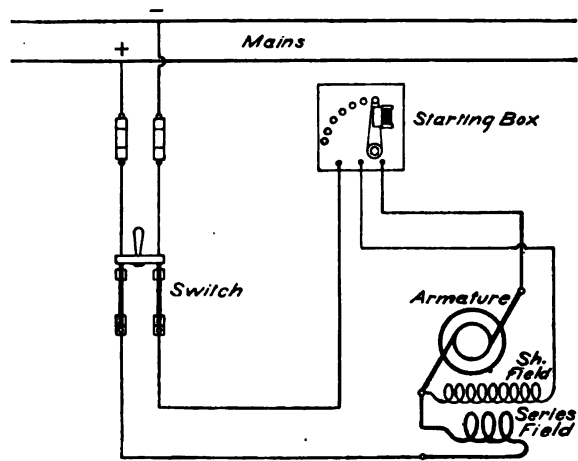


Fig. 32.

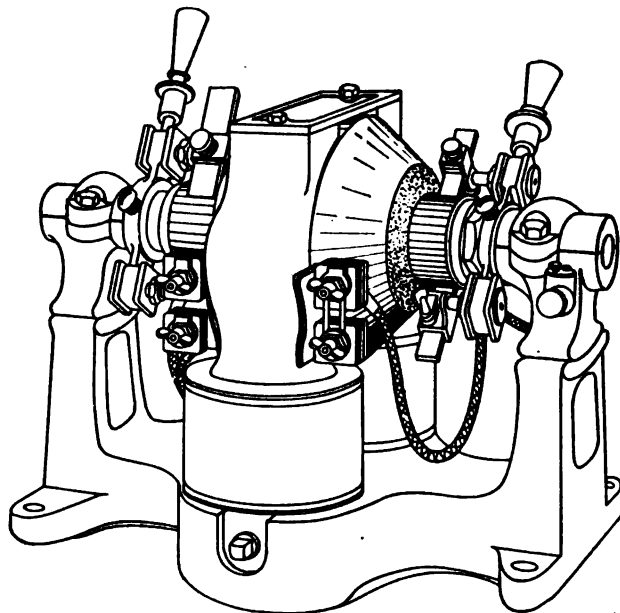


Fig. 33.

words, their effect is cumulative. This type of motor possesses the powerful starting torque feature of the series motor, but a less variable speed with varying loads. It is employed where a great starting torque and a fairly uniform running speed are required, as, for example, with electric hoists or elevators.

Dynamotors, Fig. 33, and also motor-generator sets, are started in the same way as motors; that is, the motor portion of the machine is connected to the circuit and operated precisely like the corresponding kind of motor. Usually the motor part is plain shunt-wound, and is supplied with current from a constant-potential circuit. It is therefore connected and started in the manner shown and described on page 40.

The current generated by the dynamo portion of the dynamotor may be taken from the terminals, and used for any purpose to which it is suited. The E. M. F. or current produced may be regulated by varying the resistance in the armature circuit of either the motor or dynamo. In case the dynamo armature has a separate field magnet, the E. M. F. and current may be controlled by regulating the magnetic strength of this field, or the machine may be compounded or even "over-compounded." But if the armatures of both motor and dynamo are acted upon by the same field, the E. M. F. of the dynamo cannot be varied except by inserting resistances in the circuit of either armature or by shifting the brushes. But the latter method will be likely to cause sparking.

ALTERNATING-CURRENT MOTORS.

Alternating-current motors operate on constant-potential circuits, since almost all A. C. systems are of this kind. There are several types of these motors, the simplest of which is the *series machine* for single-phase current. This is similar to the corresponding D. C. motor, except that its field must be laminated.

It possesses the characteristic of large starting torque and lends itself to variable speed control like its direct current counterpart and is coming into use very rapidly for electric railway work. Both the General Electric and the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Companies have placed such machines upon the market and they are already in operation on a number of electric roads where they are giving satisfaction.

This type of motor while retaining practically all the advantages of the direct-current series motor for electric railway work permits the use of alternating current on the trolley with all its attendant advantages. A frequency of 25 seems likely to become the standard for such work. The cars can be operated on existing

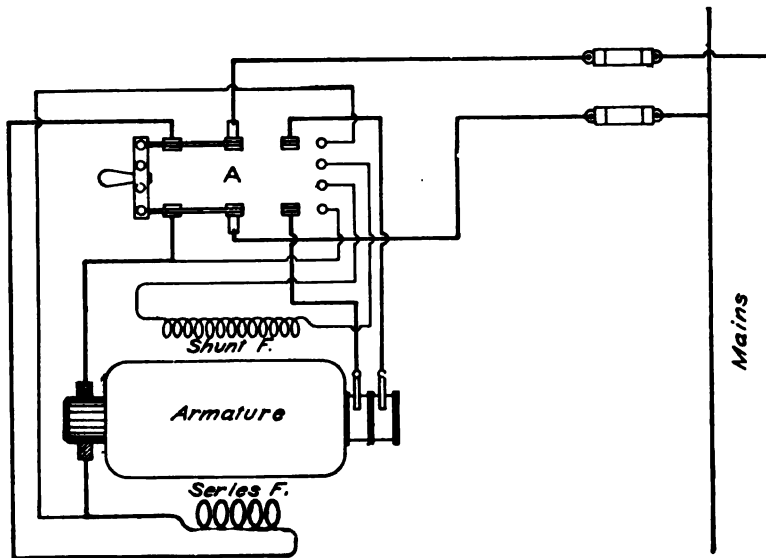


Fig. 34.

direct-current lines and the multiple unit control system can be applied to cars equipped with single-phase motors.

An ordinary single-phase alternator can be used as a motor; but it must first be brought up to synchronism with the supply generator by means of some auxiliary starting device (steam engine, polyphase induction motor, etc.) before the load can be applied. In this form the machine is known as the *single-phase synchronous motor*. The condition of synchronism is determined by one of the methods described in the paragraph on "Alternators in Parallel." After the motor is in synchronism it may be connected to the circuit by closing its supply switch; and it will then continue to run at an absolutely constant speed, unless heavily overloaded, when it falls out of step and stops.

On account of these features, the synchronous motor is not to

be recommended for general application. Various manufacturers, notably the Wagner Electric Company, and the Fort Wayne Electric Company, manufacture self-starting, single-phase synchronous motors, usually limited, however, to the smaller sizes. The construction and action of the Fort Wayne motor (Fig. 34), which is a combination of the two preceding types, are as follows: The armature core is provided with a double winding, one equipped with collecting rings, and the other with an ordinary commutator. The field magnet, which is laminated, is wound with two separate circuits, one being of low resistance and a small number of turns, the other of high resistance and many turns, like an ordinary shunt-field winding. In starting, the motor runs as a



Fig. 35.

series machine, the low-resistance field being in series with the commutated armature winding and the line. When it has reached synchronism, the switch A, on the top, is thrown over to the right, and the supply line connected with the collector rings and the corresponding armature winding; while the commutated end is connected to the other field winding, and thus

provides the direct current necessary for field excitation.

In addition to the single-phase there is also the *polyphase synchronous motor*. This latter form, however, is self-starting without field current, but will not carry a load until it is running in synchronism. When this condition is reached, the field circuit should be closed before applying the load.

A great advantage of the synchronous motor is that when its field is over-excited, it draws a leading current from the line, thus acting like a condenser and tending to neutralize the inductive effect of other machinery, so that the power factor of the whole system is raised. The most extensive use of the synchronous motor is as a part of the rotary converter, which is employed to convert alternating into direct currents, for traction and electro-chemical purposes.

The satisfactory use of alternating currents for power purposes depends mainly on the *polyphase induction motor*, as in this form the A. C. motor is self-starting with considerable torque and operates at a practically constant speed from no load to a heavy overload. Induction motors are designed for the standard voltages and frequencies.

In most induction motors now built, the primary, or part into which the currents from the line are led, is the stationary member, or *stator*. The secondary, in which the induced currents are set up, is the rotating member, or *rotor*. There are two kinds of rotor



Fig. 36.

windings, the simpler being that known as the "squirrel-cage." This winding is made up of a number of copper bars, equally spaced around the rotor core, and imbedded therein. The terminals of these inductors are interconnected, or short-circuited, by means of heavy copper rings placed at both ends of the core, as shown in Fig. 35.

The other form of winding is of the drum species, usually three-phase, Y-connected; and the coils are located at 120° intervals (the arc between centers of adjacent poles being called 180°) with respect to each other. The free ends of the windings are respectively brought out to three slip or collecting rings; and on this account this type of rotor is frequently called the "slip-ring" rotor (Fig. 36).

Starting Induction Motors. In small sizes, up to 3 or 5 H. P., the induction motor can be started by connecting its stator terminals directly to the line. But with larger sizes the inrush

of current is excessive and likely to disturb the system ; accordingly some form of starting device is usually necessary.*

Starting Compensators. This inrush of current can be avoided by inserting a starting resistance, or inductance, in series with the primary winding and the line, or by using some other means of cutting down the applied E. M. F. The torque of an induction motor decreases as the square of the applied voltage, so that this method of starting results in a greatly reduced starting effort. However, in many instances, motors are not started up under full load, so that this may not be a serious objection.

While a resistance could be employed as described, it is more economical to employ an auto-transformer (that is, a transformer

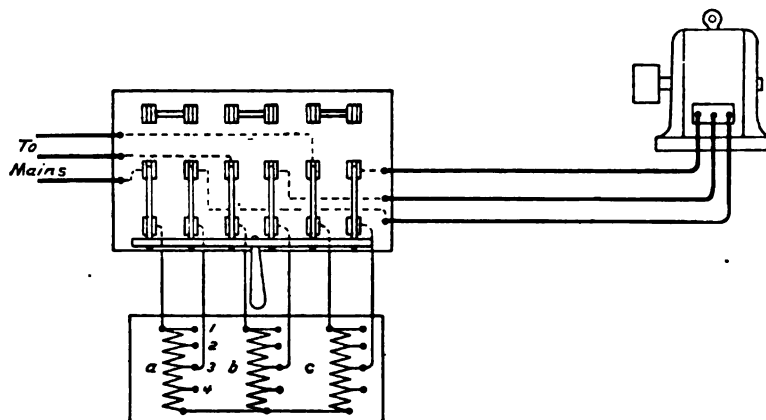


Fig. 37.

having but one coil, which serves as both a primary and a secondary), or *compensator*, as it is called when used for this purpose (Compensator connections for a three-phase motor are represented in Fig. 37. The compensator consists of coils *a*, *b*, and *c*, wound on a laminated-iron core, each coil being provided with a number of taps, 1, 2, 3, etc. The pressure applied to the motor at starting is proportioned to the amount of each coil included in the circuit. While the compensator winding is provided with taps, only that one which is most suitable for the work is used after the equipment is permanently installed. When the switch is in the

* This inrush of current is frequently three times the rated load current.

lower position as indicated, a part of each coil is in series with each leg of the system leading to the motor; and the applied voltage is correspondingly cut down. After the motor reaches its rated speed, the switch is thrown to the upper or running position, and the stator or primary terminals are connected directly to the line. The compensator thus prevents an excessive inrush of current, and gives the motor a smooth start, although it decreases the starting torque, compared with that due to full line pressure.

Speed Regulation of Induction Motors. For some classes of work, it is desirable to have induction motors arranged so that their speed can be controlled, the usual methods being :

- a. The insertion of a variable resistance in the rotor circuit.
- b. Cutting down the voltage applied to the stator, as just described.

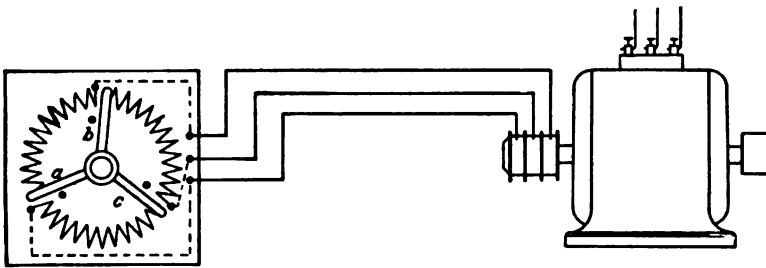


Fig. 38.

The more satisfactory method of speed control, is that with variable resistance inserted in the rotor circuit, the power-factor and hence the efficiency of the system being greater at reduced speeds than with the compensator or equivalent device. It requires, however, the use of collector rings, connecting brushes, and leads, since a resistance for continuous service is too bulky to be placed within the machine. Still further, the heat developed in the resistance would heat the machine too much. The controller itself looks like an ordinary trolley car controller, but for simplicity it is represented as a three-armed controller (Fig. 38) in which the arms *a*, *b*, and *c* are in electrical contact under the handle. The resistance is provided in three sets, one for each free end of the rotor winding; and each set is subdivided so that it can be gradually cut out of circuit as the motor speed increases. Frequently the controller is so arranged that the first motion of the handle

closes the supply lines, and subsequent motions vary the resistances in the rotor circuit, thus performing the function of a supply switch and speed controller.

Another method of speed control, is to have the winding on the stator arranged so that by means of a suitable controlling switch, the number of poles can be changed. This is a very economical method from the electrical standpoint, and gives a very wide range of control, but, on account of its complexity and cost, is used only to a limited extent.

In general, the induction motor does not allow of the same range of speed control as does the direct-current motor, and the methods employed for this purpose are not efficient.

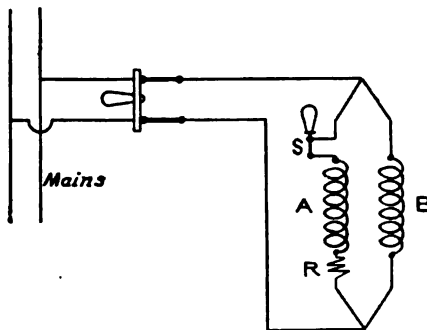


Fig. 39.

Single-Phase Induction

Motor. A two or three-phase induction motor will operate fairly well, if, after reaching full speed, all but one of the phases be cut out. It will not however start from rest under the influence of single-phase excitation. Hence, to start an induction motor from the lines of a single-phase system, currents differing in

phase must be obtained. This is accomplished by connecting the two primary windings A and B (in the case of a two-phase motor) in parallel to the single-phase mains, at the same time connecting in series with one winding a resistance R (Fig. 39). The currents flowing through these two windings will then differ in phase, one leading the other on account of a difference in their constants, and will thus produce a rotating field, and the motor will then start up.* When the motor has reached full speed, one phase may be cut out by opening the switch at S, and the machine will carry its load. The resistance R may be replaced to advantage by a condenser, especially on small machines. Such a machine is commonly called a "split-phase" motor.

* This field is not a rotary field in the full sense, being elliptical in character.

DIRECTIONS FOR RUNNING GENERATORS AND MOTORS.

After any one of these machines has been properly started, it usually requires little attention while running; in fact, generators or motors frequently operate all day without any care whatever.

In the case of a machine that has not been run before or has been changed in any way, it is wise to watch it closely at first. It is also well to give the bearings of a new machine plenty of oil at first, but not enough to run on the armature, commutator, or any part that would be injured by it; and to run the belt (if used) rather slack until the bearings and belt are in easy working condition.

If possible, a new machine should be run without load or with a light one for an hour or two, or for several hours in case of a large machine; and it is bad practice to start a new machine with its full load or even a large fraction of it. This is true even if the machine has been fully tested by its manufacturer and is in perfect condition, because there may be some fault in setting it up or some other circumstance that would cause trouble. All machinery requires some adjustment and care for a certain time to get it into smooth working order.

When this condition is reached the only attention required is to supply oil when needed, keep the machine clean, and see that it is not overloaded. A generator requires that its voltage or current should be observed and regulated if it varies. The attendant should always be ready and sure to detect the beginning of any trouble, such as sparking, heating, noise, abnormally high or low speed, etc., before any injury is caused, and to overcome it. Such directions should be pretty thoroughly committed to memory in order promptly to detect and remedy any trouble when it occurs suddenly, as is usually the case. If possible, the machine should be shut down instantly when any indication of trouble appears, in order to avoid injury and give time for examination.

Keep all tools or pieces of iron or steel away from the machine while running, as they might be drawn in by the magnetism, perhaps getting between the armature and pole pieces and ruining the machine. For this reason use a zinc, brass, or copper oil-can instead of one of iron or "tin" (tinned iron)

Particular attention and care should be given to the commutator and brushes, to see that the former keeps perfectly smooth and that the latter are in proper adjustment. (See "Sparking.")

Never lift a brush while the machine is delivering current unless there are one or more other brushes on the same side to carry the current, as the spark might make a bad burnt spot on the commutator, or might burn the hand.

Touch the bearings and field coils occasionally to see whether or not they are hot. To determine whether the armature is running hot, place the hand in the current of air thrown out from it by centrifugal force.

Special care should be observed by any one who runs a generator or motor, to *avoid overloading* it, because this is the cause of most of the troubles which occur.

Personal Safety. Never allow the body to form part of a circuit. While handling a conductor, a second contact may be made accidentally through the feet, hands, knees, or other part of the body, in some peculiar and unexpected manner. For example, men have been killed because they touched a "live" wire while standing or sitting upon a conducting body.

Rubber gloves or rubber shoes, or both, should be used in handling circuits of over 500 volts.* The safest plan is not to touch any conductor while the current is on; and it should be remembered that the current may be present when not expected, owing to an accidental contact with some other wire or to a change of connections. Tools with insulated handles, or a dry stick of wood, should be used instead of the bare hand.

The rule to use *only one hand* when handling dangerous electrical conductors or apparatus is a very good one, because it avoids the chance, which is very great, of making contacts with both hands and getting the current through the body. This rule is often made still more definite by saying, "Keep one hand in your pocket," in order to make sure not to use it. The above precautions are often totally disregarded, particularly by those who have become careless through familiarity with dangerous currents. The result has been that *almost all persons accidentally killed*

* These articles should be subjected to tests at frequent intervals, so as to determine their condition.

by artificial electricity have been experienced linemen or station men.

Stopping Generators or Motors. This is accomplished by following substantially the same directions as for starting them, but in the reverse order.

A generator operating alone on a circuit can be slowed down and stopped without touching the switches, brushes, etc., in which case the current gradually decreases to zero; and then the connections can be opened without sparking or any other difficulty.

However, when a generator is operating in parallel with others, or with a storage battery, it must not be stopped or reduced in speed, until it is entirely disconnected from the system, otherwise it will act as a short circuit. Furthermore, the current generated by it should be reduced nearly to zero before its switch is opened. This is accomplished by adjusting the field rheostat of the machine to be cut out, great care being taken that the change is gradual. If the reduction be rapid, the voltage of the machine may drop so low as to cause a back current to flow.

A **constant-current generator** may be cut into or out of circuit in series with others, and can be slowed down or stopped; or its armature or field coils may be short-circuited to prevent the action of the machine, without disconnecting it from the circuit. *It is absolutely necessary, however, to preserve the continuity of the circuit,* and not to attempt to open it at any point, as this would produce a dangerous arc. Hence a by-path must be provided by closing the main circuit around the generator, before disconnecting it. This same rule applies to any lamp, motor, or other device on a constant-current system.

Never, except in an emergency, should any circuit be opened when heavily loaded, for the reason that the flash at the contact points, discharge of magnetism, and mechanical shock which result, are decidedly objectionable.

A **Constant-Potential Motor** is stopped by turning the starting-box handle back to the position it had before starting (Fig. 28); or, *if there is a switch Q, connecting the motor to the circuit,* as there always should be, it should be opened, after which the starting-box handle is moved back to be ready for starting again.

Immediately after a machine is stopped, it should be thoroughly cleaned, and put in condition for the next run. When not in use, machines should, when feasible, be protected from dirt and moisture by covers of some waterproof material.

INSPECTING AND TESTING.

Adjustment and the other points which depend merely upon mechanical construction, are hardly capable of being investigated by a regular quantitative test, but they can and should be determined by thorough inspection. In fact a very careful examination of all parts of a machine should always precede any test of it. This should be done for two reasons: first, to get the machine into proper condition for a fair test; and, second, to determine whether the materials and workmanship are of the best quality and satisfactory in every respect. A loose screw or connection might interfere with a good test; and a poorly fitting bearing, brush-holder, or other part might show that the machine was badly made.

If it is necessary to take the machine apart for cleaning or inspection, the greatest care should be exercised in marking, numbering, and placing the parts, in order to be sure to get them together exactly the same as before. In taking a machine apart or putting it together, only the minimum force should be used. Much force usually means that something wrong is being done. A wooden or raw-hide mallet is preferable to an iron hammer, since it does not bruise or mar the parts. Usually screws, nuts, and other parts should be set up fairly tight, but not tight enough to run any risk of breaking or straining anything. Shaking or trying each screw or other part with a wrench or screw-driver, will show whether any of them are too loose or otherwise out of adjustment.

Friction. The friction of the bearings and brushes can be tested roughly by merely revolving the armature by hand, or slowly by power, and noting if it requires more than the normal amount of force. Excessive friction is quite easily distinguished, even by inexperienced persons. Another method is to revolve the armature by hand or otherwise, and see if it continues to revolve by itself freely for some time. A well-made machine in good condition and running at or near full speed, will continue to run for several minutes after the turning force is removed.

A method for actually measuring the friction consists in attaching a lever (a bar of wood, for example) to the shaft or pulley at right angles to it. The force required to overcome the friction and to turn the armature without current, is then determined by known weights or, more conveniently, by an ordinary spring balance. For convenience in dividing by the length of the lever, etc., to determine the value of the friction compared with the power of the machine, it should be exactly 1, 2, or 4 feet long. The friction of the bearings alone—that is, the pull which is required to turn the armature when the brushes are lifted off the commutator—should not exceed about 2 per cent of the total torque or turning force of the machine at full load. When the brushes are in contact with the commutator with the usual pressure, the friction should not then exceed about 3 per cent; that is, the brushes themselves should not consume more than 1 per cent of the total turning force.

Another method of measuring the friction of a machine is to run it by another machine used as a motor, and determine the volts and amperes required, first, with brushes lifted off, and second, with brushes on the commutator with the usual pressure. The torque or force exerted by the driving machine is afterwards measured by a Prony brake in the manner described hereafter for testing torque, care being taken to make the Prony brake measurements at exactly the same volts and amperes as were required in the friction tests. In this way the torques exerted by the driving machine to overcome friction in each of the first two tests are determined; and these torques, compared with the total torque of the machine being tested, should give percentages not exceeding those stated above for maximum values of friction. The magnetic pull of the field on the armature may be very great if the latter is not exactly in the center of the space between the pole pieces. This would have the effect of increasing the friction of the shaft in the bearings when the field is magnetized. It occurs to a certain extent in all cases, but it should be corrected if it becomes excessive. This may be tested by turning the current into the fields, being sure to leave the armature disconnected, and then turning the shaft with the lever as before. The friction in this case should not be more than 2 to 4 per cent.

Tests for friction alone should be made at a low speed, because at high speeds the effects of Foucault currents and hysteresis enter and materially increase the apparent friction.

Balance. The perfection of balance of the armature or pulley can be roughly tested by simply running the machine at normal speed and noting if these parts cause any objectionable vibration. Of course, practically every machine produces perceptible vibration when running, but this should not amount to more than a very slight trembling. The balance of a machine can be definitely tested, and the extent of the vibration measured, by suspending the machine or by mounting it on wheels, and running it at full speed. In this case it is better to run the machine as a motor, even though it be actually a generator, in order to avoid the necessity of running it by a belt, which would cause vibration and interfere with the test. If, however, the use of a belt is unavoidable, it should be arranged to run vertically upward or downward so as not to produce any horizontal motion in addition to the vibration of the machine itself. Fig. 40 shows a machine hung up to be tested for balance, and run either as a motor or by the vertical belt indicated by the dotted lines. Any lack of balance will cause the machine to vibrate or swing horizontally, and this motion can be measured on a fixed scale.

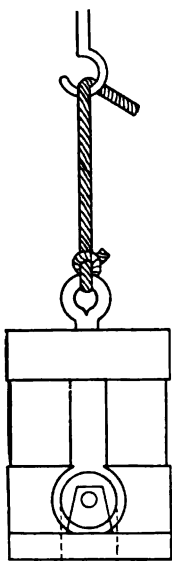


Fig. 40.

Noise. This cannot well be tested quantitatively, although it is very desirable that a machine should make as little noise as possible. Noise is produced by various causes. The machine should be run at full speed, and any noise and its cause carefully noted. A machine—especially the commutator—will nearly always run more quietly after it has been in use a week or more and has worn smooth.

Heating. The proper way to determine the temperature rise in electrical apparatus is by measurements of resistance, before and after operating for a specified time (usually 3 to 4 hours) under rated load.

The rise of temperature is:

$$\theta = (238.1 + t) \left(\frac{R_t + \theta}{R_t} - 1 \right),$$

in which t is the room temperature in degrees Centigrade, R_t the resistance in ohms at room temperature, and $(R_t + \theta)$ the final resistance at a temperature elevation of θ° C. The standard room temperature is 25° C; and if it differs from this, the determined rise should be corrected by $+\frac{1}{2}$ per cent for each degree C. For ordinary tests it may be assumed that the resistance of copper increases .4 per cent for each degree C rise in temperature. The allowable rise in temperature for field or armature windings is 50° C, hence their resistance for continuous operation at rated load should not be more than 20 per cent in excess of the room temperature. The heating of commutators, collector rings, and brushes that cannot be measured electrically, is tested by thermometers when the machine is stopped, the permissible rise being 50° C; and for bearings and other parts of machines the limit is 40° C. When a thermometer is applied to a surface it should be covered by a pad of cotton or waste cloth, in a shallow, circular box about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter. A large pad tends to accumulate heat. When machines are in operation, or in other cases when it is not convenient to measure resistances, especially for excessive temperatures due to abnormal conditions, thermometers may be used to test all stationary parts; but it should be noted that their indications are usually about 5° C lower than those determined by resistances, because the surface is cooler than the interior. A very simple test of heating is to apply the hand to the armature, etc., and if it can be held there without great discomfort, the temperature is not dangerous. Allowance should always be made, however, for the fact that, on account of its heat conductivity, bare metal feels very much hotter than cotton-covered wires, cloth, etc., at the same actual temperatures; but this apparent difference is much less if the hand is kept on for 10 to 20 seconds.

Sparking at the commutator cannot be accurately measured; but it is very objectionable, and in a machine in good order should be hardly perceptible. In any test one should observe carefully whether the sparking is excessive or not; and if so, to what it is due.

An approach to measurement may be made by starting with a lightly loaded machine and gradually increasing the load, meanwhile shifting the rocker-arm and brushes back and forth, and noting at what load it is impossible to find a non-sparking point. In machines the brushes must be shifted to follow the armature reaction as the load increases; but one should always be able to find a place where sparking ceases, within the rated load. In fact, a machine should be able to run with 25 per cent overload before sparking is serious. If a machine begins to spark at 50 per cent of its load, it is clearly only half as useful as it might be, and this may be taken in a sense as a measure of sparking.

EXAMINATION PAPER.

MANAGEMENT OF DYNAMO- ELECTRIC MACHINERY.

PART I.

Instruction to the Student. Place your name and full address at the head of the paper. Use any cheap, light paper like the sample already sent you, of a size about 7 by 9 inches. Study the Instruction Paper thoroughly before attempting to answer the Examination, and then answer in *your own words*.

1. Why is the steam turbine well adapted for direct connection ?
2. On a three-wire system is it better to use 110-volt or 220-volt motors ? Explain why.
3. Describe construction and operation of the Fort Wayne self-starting synchronous motor.
4. What methods are used for controlling the speed of induction motors ? Which one is preferable ?
5. How can the friction of brushes and bearings be tested roughly ?
6. What points should be considered in the selection of a machine ?
7. Give a sketch of the connections of a compound-wound motor.
8. What is the advantage of a synchronous motor when its field is over excited ? Explain.
9. Give a safe rule to follow for personal protection when handling electrical circuits of a sufficiently high voltage to be dangerous.
10. What precautions must be taken in fixing a direct-connected set ?
11. Why should starting boxes always be furnished with direct-current motors ?
12. (a) How are small induction motors started ? (b) Why cannot large sizes be started in the same way ?

